The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1887.

The Week.

THE action of the Grand Army men regarding pensions at their National Encampment in St. Louis last week is the feature of the gathering which chiefly interests the general public, and its importance is such that it must command the attention of the nation. For some years past there has been a growing tendency towards converting the organization into a machine for getting pensions, and the discussion over the veto of the Dependent Pension Bill rendered its action at St. Louis of peculiar interest. Three or four years ago a movement was started in Massachusetts for securing service pensions—that is, pensions for everybody who served in the Union Army during the war, the rate favored being $8 per month. Its advocates were zealous and persistent, and they soon succeeded in carrying a majority of the Grand Army posts in the State, the State Encampment having since then repeatedly given large majorities for the scheme, and instructed its delegates to the National Encampment to push it before that body. The scandal of such a proposition was so great, however, that the National Encampment has refused to endorse it, the majority of the delegates recognizing the loss of prestige involved in supporting such a grab. The Pension Committee appointed at the last National Encampment shared this self-respecting feeling, and reported last week in favor of united effort to secure the passage of another bill, which is practically the same as the vetoed Dependent Pension Bill. This report was carried through at Thursday's session without discussion, under the operation of the previous question, and therefore stands as the official action of the body.

Although the advocates of the service pension concluded to make no fight in the National Encampment, where they saw that they were certain to fail by reason of the unrepresentative character of that body, they have organized a National Service Pension Association, which proposes to make this "overwhelming majority in favor of a service pension" felt in future. Congressman-elect Hovey of Indiana has been chosen President, and has engaged to push the scheme in Congress, and the members of the Association propose to bring all their influence to bear at Washington to secure its passage. The outrageous injustice of this proposition has been previously set forth in these columns. At the minimum rate of $8 a month it would mean the addition of much more than $100,000,000 a year to the already enormous pension roll, while it would involve a demoralization of the national character terrible to contemplate, if hundreds of thousands of men who are able to earn their own living were to get their support from the public Treasury. In short, it would be hard to imagine a measure more discreditable and dangerous than this scheme which the Grand Army Machine is now shown to favor.

The designation of William L. Putnam of Maine and President Angell of Michigan University to act with Secretary Bayard in the fisheries negotiation with the British Commissioners, settles all doubts, if there were any, as to the nature of the negotiation. There has been a great deal of pother over the question whether this should be called a Commission or by some other name. A great many people on our side of the water had imbibed the notion that no Commission could be appointed without the previous assent of Congress. This strange conception had its origin in the fact that the Senate two or three years ago passed a resolution adverse to such a Commission. The resolution was merely an expression of the Senate's opinion. It might be considered advisory, although even in this mild sense it was extra-constitutional, since the Senate's advice to the President regarding negotiations with foreign Powers does not begin until the negotiations are sent to it in due form. The name and style of the negotiators is a matter of no importance. But as the word Commission is commonly applied to such bodies, there is no reason why this one should not be known as the Fisheries Commission. The gentlemen appointed to act with Secretary Bayard are undoubtedly as well qualified for such work as any who could be found, and we are sure that they are in no wise inferior in either learning or patriotism to the British and Canadian Commissioners whom they will meet.

The letter which Mr. Oberly, Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission, has addressed to the Illinois Democratic Association, made up of office-holders in the Washington departments, declining an invitation to address them, and notifying them that he considers their organization in itself an offence against the Civil-Service Law, marks another step forward in the establishment of the reform principle. Mr. Oberly makes it plain that the establishment of such associations violates the letter of the law, as it obviously does its spirit, and he points out forcibly the scandals involved in their existence and work under Republican administrations. He concludes with this vigorous application of his sermon: "And now may I not be excused for saying that Democrats should not imitate the worst practices of the worst Republicans, by organizing the officers, clerks, and other employees of the departments at Washington into State associations, the purposes of which are partisan, and all the money collected or expended by which is money collected and expended, given, and handed over — received and applied, as the law expresses it—for partisan purposes, and for the promotion of political objects, all of which practices the Civil-Service Law denounces as unlawful, as punishable by fine and imprisonment, when the parties to the practices are persons in the service of the United States? I believe the Democrats should practise in power what they preached while out of power, and that they should not follow the evil example set them by the party they have succeeded in the administration of the affairs of the republic."

The Republicans of Massachusetts have not broken down the Civil-Service Law so completely as they supposed they had when they passed the Soldiers' Exemption Act last winter. That act has been construed by several officials with appointing powers to mean that veterans could be appointed to subordinate positions not only without examination, but without any certification of the Civil-Service Commissioners. The act provides that any honorably discharged soldier or sailor can be appointed to a position in the classified civil service without examination, but it stipulates that he shall file with the Civil-Service Commissioners, together with his application for appointment, a sworn statement of his personal and military record, habits, and moral character, accompanied by certificates of good moral character and capacity for performance of the duties of the office. The Civil Service Commissioners hold that the stipulation for filing this information with them gives them the sole power of certifying veterans for appointment, and that none such can be appointed without that certification. The point was submitted to the Supreme Court by the Governor's Council for decision, and six of the seven judges have united in an opinion that the Commissioners are right.

This decision leaves the Republicans of the State in a very awkward predicament. It will be remembered that a Republican Legislature first passed the Exemption Law during the Administration of Gov. Robinson, and that he vetoed it. At their State Convention in 1886 the Republicans adopted a civil-service plank which directly pledged the party to oppose such legislation. Last winter, however, the Exemption Bill was introduced in the Republican Legislature again, was passed, and signed by the Republican Governor. Under its provisions Republican officials have been appointing veterans to office without certification by the Civil-Service Commissioners. Now, the highest court in the State declares that in passing the law the Republican legislators have not accomplished what they supposed they had; that they have, in fact, broken their party pledge, and secured all the odium of attacking civil-service reform without giving the "soldier vote" what it desired; for the soldiers who have demanded this exemption are not the self-respecting veterans who ask only an equal chance with other men, but the camp-followers, who can no more come successfully out of a character examination than they can out of one for clerical fitness.

W. P. Tilghman, who is, according to reports which have been widely published, now under arrest in Berlin for cheating and swindling, was lately dismissed from our consular service. The position he held was that of a

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consular clerk, not that of a vice-consul, as has been published. Consular clerks are to be distinguished from office clerks. The former are appointed by the President, and hold during good behavior; the latter are simply employed by the consular officer and dismissed at his pleasure. The case of Tilghman furnishes an excellent opportunity to remind the President of the object of the law which called into existence a class of officers originally designated consular pupils, but now known as consular clerks. By the act of August 18, 1856, which established our consular system upon its present basis, the President was authorized to appoint consular pupils not to exceed twenty-five in number, who should be citizens of the United States, and who should be assigned to such consulates and charged with such duties as the President might think proper. The object of the law was, in imitation of the French, to educate young men of character and ability to be worthy representatives of our country abroad. In short, it meant to make of our consular system a noble profession. An appropriation act, however, two years later nipped this laudable scheme in the bud. But at last, by act of 1864, the original design was in substance restored. The officers were styled consular clerks, and their number was restricted to thirteen.

It is gratifying to relate that even then civil-service-reform principles began to manifest themselves. It was enacted that "before the appointment of any such clerk shall be made, it shall be satisfactorily shown to the Secretary of State, after due examination and report by an examining board, that the applicant is qualified and fit for the duties to which he shall be assigned, and such report shall be laid before the President." It was further enacted that no clerk so appointed should be removed from office except for cause stated in writing, which should be submitted to Congress at the session following such removal. The part, however, which relates to examinations is defective in that it does not require them to be competitive. The result has been, as any one might have foreseen, that these places have not escaped the greedy hand of the spoilsman, though the debates in the two houses of Congress clearly show that the adoption of the measure was pressed by its advocates because it "would give opportunity for the improvement of the consular service by the appointment, without regard to partisan considerations, of young men of education and character." There may have been few as lacking in character as Tilghman appointed to these places, yet no serious efforts have been made to render impossible the selection of such as he. Owing to the excellent opportunities for study afforded by such positions, and to the respectable tenure by which they are held, the best representatives of our best schools and colleges would eagerly seek them if they were thrown open to competition. Now they are monopolized by those who have Congressional influence. It is to the credit of the present officers of the Department of State that they at least require those designated at present for these places to spend months at the Department engaged in the study of our laws and history, under the guidance of a competent teacher. Would it not be still more creditable to appoint in the first place only those who had proved in open, competitive examination their entire fitness to discharge all the duties which might be assigned to them?

The vote on the prohibition amendment in Tennessee on Thursday, like that in Texas a few weeks ago, shows that a question of public policy in which men are really interested will impel them to the polls in larger numbers than any mere strife over the offices. It shows, also, that the defeat of prohibition was due exclusively to the negro vote. A considerable majority of the white men in Tennessee undoubtedly voted for prohibition, and the narrow margin against it comes from the black men. The result in Knoxville tells the story. The population of the city in 1880 consisted of 70 whites to 30 negroes in every 100 persons. The vote for prohibition was 2,312 in the affirmative, to 1,120 in the negative—in other words, 68 for to 32 against in every 100; and the despatches say that "the negro vote was almost solid against the amendment, and represents at least three-quarters of the opposition in Knoxville." It was the same way in Nashville, where the despatches say that "the negroes almost universally voted against the amendment, their cry being 'personal liberty,' which was the watchword of the 'antis.'"

Mr. David A. Wells has been writing a series of remarkable articles in the *Popular Science Monthly* on "The Economic Disturbances since 1873." The original design of the writer was, apparently, not in any sense controversial, but rather historical. Much has been written in a scrappy way about the improvements of machinery, new inventions applied to production and transportation, and the consequent cheapening of the principal articles of human consumption that have been effected within the past fifteen years. There has been no attempt, so far as we are aware, to group all these together, both in general and in detail, so as to make a picture explaining at one glance the great fall in prices during recent years. Such was evidently the author's design, and sole design, when he took up this exceedingly interesting subject. But in the course of his investigations he ran foul of the theory of the bimetallists that the fall of prices in the past fifteen years has been caused by silver demonetization and gold scarcity. This is pure dogma. Mr. Wells, finding reasons quite sufficient to account for all the decline in prices in the world of facts and outside of the land of dreams, and finding also some important articles that have not declined in price, as they ought to have done on the gold-scarcity theory, has been seemingly impelled to give a controversial turn to the later chapters of his treatise. It is evident that if bimetallism is going to stand up against this powerful attack, it must now come out of dreamland and speak a language that common people can understand.

We do not deny Chief-Judge Ruger's right to grant another stay in Sharp's case, but we are bound to say that as a rare, almost unprecedented performance, it is peculiar, and a judicial act which is peculiar is always open to criticism or question at the hands of anybody who thinks criticism or question will do any good. The difficulty there has been in getting Sharp's sentence carried out is, in fact, whoever may be responsible for it, a great scandal, and is inevitably connected in the minds of the unreflecting public with his wealth.

The Springfield meeting of the American Board promises to produce a debate more bitter, if less exciting, than the one at Des Moines last year. In preparation for it the methods of a political campaign have been freely employed. The *Independent* filled its last issue with columns of anonymous letters approving its recent course. On the other side, the *Christian Union*, almost the solitary champion of the liberal view, contents itself with pointing out the position of self-stultification into which the conservatives of the Board are rapidly bringing the denomination. This is the fatal logic of events which is sure to defeat the present policy of the Prudential Committee in the end. Candidate after candidate, pronounced by that body unfit to preach the Gospel in heathen lands, has been endorsed by councils at home, and has been received to positions of trust and influence in the American Church. This cannot last for ever, and though the conservatives have undoubtedly an immense majority in the Board, and can carry any measure they please, the time will soon come when they will have to consent to the sending of such candidates as missionaries. The thing may be done furtively, perhaps, and under cover of some high-sounding resolution to the contrary, as occurred in the case of Mr. Hume, but it will have to be done at last.

The victory of the *Volunteer* was so overwhelming that even Messrs. Watson and Bell are forced to admit that the superiority of the centreboard sloop as a racer can no longer be questioned. It is a gloomy day for cutter men, and we presume they will keep a discreet silence for a long time to come. The *Volunteer's* two victories were singularly decisive, showing so clearly as to make dispute impossible that she was the better boat in both light and heavy weather. She not only beat the fastest English cutter ever built, but beat her so badly that there was really no race after the first few miles. For this remarkable victory the American people are solely indebted to the skill of Mr. Burgess and the public-spirited generosity of Gen. Paine. We trust that this great debt will be paid in some more substantial manner than mere words. It is high time that the burden of defending the cup were taken from Gen. Paine, and borne by the large and rich yachting fraternity of the whole country.

The erection and opening of a club for conductors and other railroad employees through the liberality of Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt at the Grand Central Station is an excellent step in the direction of identifying the employees with the corporations which they serve, and making them feel that they have a permanent interest in the prosperity of the railroad, and are not mere hirelings. A year ago, when the strikes were raging on the

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Southwestern railroads, and on the horse-railroads in this city, we urged upon the attention of railroad managers the immense importance of making their men feel that their employers were as good friends as the unions, and had their comfort and safety at heart. Mr. Vanderbilt has made the first great step in this policy, and it must bear fruit. It is sure not simply to give any corporation which pursues it the pick of the labor market, but to cause intelligent and self-respecting men to cling to its service, as the best thing for their own future and that of their families.

There have been two Catholic Congresses held lately, one at Treves in Germany and the other at Liége in Belgium. The German one devoted itself mainly to the discussion of the relations of Church and State in the empire, but the other occupied itself largely with "the labor problem." It discussed nearly all the solutions proposed by the innumerable lay orators and writers who occupy themselves with attempts to satisfy "Labor," such as "wise laws," coöperation, trades-unions, government socialism, collectivism, communism, anarchy, the nationalization of the land, and what not, and condemned them all. They are all insufficient because the Church plays no part in them. The true and real solution is, the Bishop of Liége said, the following: The old trade guilds must be revived and placed under the guardianship of Christian lay employers and of the clergy. Then each trade or calling must be placed under the special protection of a saint; and brotherhoods of those engaged in it, composed both of employers and workmen, must be formed for the celebration of the saint's fête and for participation in religious processions and funerals and the rendering of mutual assistance in times of need. There was, we believe, no discussion of the probability of the adoption of this solution by the working classes, and probably few, if any, members of the Congress had any expectation that Labor would pay the smallest attention to it. But in propounding a scheme which had no chance of adoption, the Congress only followed the example of ninety-nine out of every hundred who undertake to abolish poverty and discontent. Most of the writing and talking about the Labor problem has apparently no practical end in view whatever, and appears to be intended rather to ease the mind of the authors than to change the face of modern society.

The reverent meekness with which the English allow themselves to be so often lectured on their foreign politics by Prof. Arminius Vámbéry of the University of Buda-Pesth is amusing. Because, a quarter of a century ago, he travelled in disguise through a part of Turkestan then inaccessible to Europeans, and subsequently wrote a number of books on the ethnography and languages of Central Asia, he is deemed a kind of permanent oracle on affairs concerning the countries lying between the Indus and the Caspian. That his accounts of travel and philological studies have been subjected to very severe criticism—the former in Russia, whose armies have since occupied the scenes of his adventures, and the latter by eminent scholars of his own country—and that his oracular utterances are palpably inspired by Hungarian, anti-Russian animosity, has been overlooked in the friendly fervor towards him which his very partiality in matters in dispute between Russia and Great Britain kindles in English breasts. He is credited with knowing the secret springs of action in Tashkend and Bokhara, Kabul and Herat, Teheran and Meshed, Balkh and Kashgar. Afghanistan, of course, is his most frequent theme. His latest communication in the London *Times*—a most ready organ—refers to the flight of Ayub Khan from his Persian custody, which made the Professor foresee direful consequences for Amir Abdurrahman and the British order of things in Asia generally. That the "hero of Maiwand," who is still "the favorite and much-regretted Prince of the Afghan nation," and "such an important factor in Central-Asian politics," has been able to escape, "cannot but be ascribed to the machinations of that very Power whose peaceful intentions . . . were of late so much spoken of in official circles" in London. Who brought about that escape? Of course, the Russian Minister in Teheran, Prince Dolgoruki, the Persian Government tacitly conniving "at the newest political trick of your continually stirring rival," O ye British! If your Lord Salisbury, in a recent "post-prandial speech," alluded to Russia's peaceable disposition, "the illustrious statesman had certainly motives in view the far-lying political reasons of which we are neither entitled nor able to scrutinize." These are modest words from the mouth of an international admonisher. What saves Lord Salisbury is Ayub's ludicrous discomfiture.

A few days ago a statue of Francis Deák was with great solemnity unveiled at Buda-Pesth. The Emperor-King of Austria-Hungary, Francis Joseph, was present. The statue commemorates the man who made Austria-Hungary—the dual constitutional monarchy that now is, the ally of Germany and Italy—out of an Austria and a Hungary held together by the sword, after a terrible conflict. The sword had been half broken at Sadowa when the Hungarian statesman was called forth from his modest retreat to act as pacificator between his nation and the Hapsburg dynasty. Acting under the auspices of Count Beust, the newly appointed leading Minister of the monarch, he laid the foundation of a new order of things, which was to restore to the Magyar his ancient freedom, give each component part of the empire national autonomy, and create collective strength through voluntary union. Twenty years have passed since the work was consummated, and have tested its worth and strength. The vast majority of the nation and its ruler gratefully acknowledge its excellence. Kossuth, in his voluntary exile, and the party in Hungary which calls itself after him, alone demur, deeming the compromise of 1867 a partial surrender of the legislative independence sanctioned by the laws of 1848. As to the excellence of the man himself, as a patriot, legislator, and orator, there has never been a dissenting voice. When he died, in the beginning of 1876, "the Aristides of Hungary" was honored by a national mourning equalling the mourning over Washington or Lincoln. One of the three men who created or recreated great States in our time, Deák has the advantage over Cavour and Bismarck of having achieved his work by mere suasion and moral guidance, without an army, a treasury, or an ally, without shedding a drop of blood in battle or insurrection, without so much as a stratagem or a threat. Mazzini and Garibaldi, Victor Emanuel and Napoleon III., worked for Cavour; Bismarck wielded the sword of Moltke and Prussia's entire wonderful machine of State; Deák had only passive resistance and the logic of events for his supports. Strangely enough, the three great men, who never acted in unison, did one work collectively: Cavour broke Austria's power in Italy, Bismarck drove her out of Germany, Deák gave her a new centre of gravity in Buda-Pesth.

According to the message of President Diaz to the Mexican Congress, there is no little tension in the relations of Mexico with Guatemala. Early in the year, it seems, the Assistant Secretary of the Mexican Legation in Central America was assaulted by a citizen of Guatemala, and the latter when brought to trial received a punishment far less than the laws assigned in such cases. The Mexican Minister was at once ordered to demand that the magistrates responsible for the evasion of the legal penalty should be dismissed from office. While the affair was pending, the assumption of the dictatorship by Barillas took place, who immediately sought recognition from President Diaz. This was refused by the latter, however, and has not yet been granted; the Mexican Government professing to be ready to recognize any Government established by the people of Guatemala, but doubting if the dictatorship was in accordance with the popular will. Meanwhile, a second assault upon the same Secretary has occurred, and the demand for satisfaction has been met very chillingly. Gen. Diaz's references to the affair amount to a distinct threat that Guatemala must move promptly or expect decided action on the part of Mexico. Those passages of the message bearing upon the financial situation of the country are of interest. The President reports a decided increase in the revenue for the year ending June 30, the total being $28,700,000, as against $26,700,000 in the year before. The difference between this augmented income and the supplies voted by Congress for the same period, $33,000,000, is, the President admits, "alarming," though he says that a severe economy has enabled him to bring the expenses so far within the estimates that the deficit is not so great as the figures just cited would indicate. He says that the new tariff in force since last July has been favorably received by the country, with the exception of the part reducing the duties on cotton goods; that part, he intimates, may soon be changed to meet the wishes of Mexican manufacturers. During the two months of its operation the new tariff has witnessed, the message asserts, a marked decrease in smuggling and a distinct impulse given to commerce.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, September 28, to TUESDAY, October 4, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President and Mrs. Cleveland and a small party of their friends left Washington on a special train September 30 to visit the West and the South. They stopped first at Indianapolis, where they received a hearty reception, and on October 1 they arrived at St. Louis, where the President and Mrs. Cleveland were entertained until October 3 by Mayor Francis. Thereafter he held a series of public receptions and went to Chicago October 4. The demonstration in St. Louis in his honor on October 3 will long be memorable in the history of the city. In the Merchants' Exchange he addressed some 10,000 persons, and at the hour of the public reception at the Lindell House 40,000 persons filled the adjacent streets. Another great crowd filled the Exposition building and its approaches when the Presidential party arrived there in the evening. The parade in the evening called out some 20,000 men.

The President has appointed William L. Putnam of Maine and James B. Angell, President of Michigan University, to act with the Secretary of State in the negotiation for a settlement with Great Britain of the disputes growing out of the fisheries question. Both have accepted. Mr. Putnam is a Democrat and Mr. Angell a Republican.

The Treasury Department issued instructions to customs officers October 4 in regard to the collection of duties on merchandise arriving by parcel post from Jamaica, in accordance with the terms of the postal convention with that country which went into effect October 1.

The United States revenue cutter *Bear* arrived at San Francisco from Alaska October 2, and reported that on August 24 she seized the British sealing schooner *Ada*, with 1,900 seal skins, and the American schooner *Allie I. Alger*, with 1,600 skins, and a few days later the American schooner *Handy*, with 1,700 skins. Among the passengers was J. B. Vincent, the only survivor of the thirty-six men on the whaling bark *Napoleon*, which was wrecked in the ice in the Arctic in May, 1885. From that time until he was rescued he lived with a small band of Indians on the Siberian coast.

The Naval Board appointed to estimate the cost of building the 6,000-ton armored battle ship designed by the Barrow Ship-building Company of England, reported September 29 an estimate of $2,376,000, which is $124,000 less than the sum appropriated by Congress to build it.

Gen. Crook, in his report to the War Department on the recent trouble with the Ute Indians in Colorado, says that from the outset, with but one slight interruption, the Indians were pursued incessantly, that in every case the whites were the aggressors and fired first, and that Colorow had no desire to fight, and made use of his weapons only in self-defence. Twelve Indians were wounded, and five of them died.

The majority report of the Utah Commissioners published October 2 shows that the Mormon population of the Territory on April 1, was 132,297, the non-Mormon being 55,000. The Gentiles now own of the assessed property of the Territory nearly one-third, exclusive of railroad property. Since the passage of the Edmunds law in 1882, 541 persons have been indicted for unlawful cohabitation, and 279 of these were convicted. The number convicted of polygamy was fourteen. The first annual election under the act of Congress, prescribing a registration oath for voters, was held on August 1. The Mormons elected ten councillors and twenty-one members, the non-Mormons two councillors and three members. The Commission regards the movement to secure admission into the Union as an effort to free the Mormon Church from the toils which the firm attitude of the Government and the energetic course of the Federal officers have thrown around it, and opposes its consummation. In conclusion, the Commission declares that the results which have followed the passage of the Edmunds act have been beneficial to the Territory.

The Illinois Democratic Association of office-holders in the departments at Washington invited Civil-Service Commissioner Oberly to deliver an address to its members. He declined, and wrote in his reply, September 29: "A Civil-Service Commissioner or a civil service examiner as a member of a political committee, or as a member, patron, or encourager of a political association composed of persons in the public service, all members of one political party, organized for the purpose of putting certain political partisans into and excluding certain other political partisans from office, would certainly be out of place, and the public would be justified in the conclusion that, in the discharge of his official duties, he might bear unfairly against political opponents and lean partially towards party friends. I believe the Democrats should practise in power what they preached while out of power, and that they should not follow the evil example set them by the party they have succeeded in the administration of the affairs of the republic."

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts on September 28 gave an interpretation of the Soldiers' Exemption Law enacted by the last Legislature, whereby veterans were made exempt from competitive examinations for positions in the State civil service. Their interpretation is that those who are exempted by the new law from the requirements of the regular examination nevertheless "cannot be preferred for appointment to office . . . without having made application to the Civil-Service Commission." This leaves in the hands of the Commission the sole power of certifying veterans for appointment.

The Republican Convention of Massachusetts September 28 renominated Gov. Oliver Ames, Lieut.-Gov. J. Q. A. Brackett, Secretary of State H. B. Pierce, Treasurer Alanson W. Beard, and Auditor Charles R. Ladd, and nominated A. J. Waterman for Attorney-General. The platform favors the protective tariff, "liberal appropriations for the reconstruction of our navy, for internal improvements, and for proper national aid to education, and pensions for disabled soldiers and sailors," and declares that "the time has come for Congress to carefully consider the question of the internal-revenue system and of the tariff on sugar." The National Civil-Service Law is approved, but the President's record in enforcing it is condemned. The plank on temperance legislation has a strong prohibitory leaning.

The Democratic State Convention of New York, September 28, nominated for Secretary of State Frederick Cook, for Comptroller Edward Wemple, for State Treasurer Lawrence J. Fitzgerald, for Attorney-General Charles F. Tabor, for State Engineer and Surveyor John Bogart. The platform "reiterates" support of the civil-service laws, national and State; but "in view of the radical change in administrative methods which grows out of the civil-service laws, and the differences of opinion which exist in relation thereto, we deem the subject one which might appropriately be submitted to the popular vote." Its demand for revenue-reform legislation is more than usually emphatic.

A mass meeting of Independent Democrats of Baltimore was held September 30, and an address was issued "to the Independent Democrats of the State of Maryland and city of Baltimore," wherein the signers said: "We do, therefore, as *Democrats*, disown allegiance to the so-called 'Democratic' party in this State as a sham and a fraud, and we call upon every true Democrat to join with us this year in defeating the candidates, State and city, of this self-constituted organization. We believe that a real Democrat can be engaged in no better work at this time than in relieving the party from such an incubus and the party name from disgrace."

At an election in Tennessee on September 29 a proposed prohibitory amendment to the Constitution was defeated by about 15,000 votes. At Nashville, on election day, the church bells were rung and prayer-meetings were conducted in the churches by women. Every saloon was closed, and there was a practical suspension of business. There were similar scenes in other cities. The greater part of the colored vote was cast against the amendment.

The report of the Committee on Pensions, presented to the Grand Army Encampment at St. Louis September 29, was adopted with some opposition. It recommends the continuance of an earnest effort in favor of the bill prepared by the Committee, granting pensions to all veterans now disabled or in need, and to mothers and fathers from date of dependence; the continuance of pensions to widows in their own right, and an increase for minor children; a pension of $12 per month to all widows of honorably discharged soldiers and sailors of the late war; increased pensions for the severer disabilities, as presented in the bill prepared by the United States Maimed Veterans' League; pensions for the survivors of rebel prisons, as presented in the bill of the National Association of Prisoners of War; increased pensions for loss of hearing or eyesight; a re-enactment of the Arrears Law; and an equitable equalization of bounties. A resolution that by his veto of the Dependent Pension Bill "the President has violated his pledge made to the soldiers when they flocked to the standard of their country at the time of her greatest peril, has thwarted the express will of a grateful people, and has inflicted irreparable cruelty upon those who should be the objects of the tenderest consideration," was defeated by a large vote

The General Convention of the Knights of Labor assembled at Minneapolis October 3. The Secretary of the General Executive Committee reported that at the last Convention, which was held at Richmond, Va., the order had about 702,000 members, 30,000 of whom were not in good standing, but that this year there are 560,000 men in the organization, every one in good standing. The Secretary during the past year suspended more than 2,300 assemblies for non-payment of dues, but a great many of them have been readmitted.

The dismissal of a foreman in a New York shoe factory, named Haitt, was caused some time ago by the Knights of Labor for dismissing a Union workman. Haitt went to Baltimore, but had no sooner got work than the Knights there caused his dismissal at the request of the New York Knights. He returned to New York and had the Executive Committeemen here who had caused his dismissal arrested. An application for the release of one of them was made to Judge Barrett in the Court of Oyer and Terminer, who decided, September 29, that the case should be presented to the Grand Jury because it seemed to him to be a prima-facie case of conspiracy within the meaning of the New York statutes.

A fine and well-appointed building for the use of the employees of the Vanderbilt roads which run into New York was opened October 4, a gift of Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt which cost more than $100,000. It is devoted to the uses of the Railroad Branch of the Young Men's Christian Association, and the only condition required of any employee of these roads who uses its reading-rooms, gymnasium, baths, and other comforts and conveniences, is the payment of a specific sum, from 10 cents upwards, per month, for at least a year from the date of application.

The increase in the cost of coal in Vermont caused by the Inter-State Commerce Law has forced large consumers there to test other kinds of fuel. A manufacturing concern at Bellows Falls, which formerly used 130 tons a week,

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by mixing sawdust with different qualities of soft coal, now uses less than twenty-five tons. A firm at Putney is using crude petroleum.

The American Board of Foreign Missions met at Springfield, Mass., October 4. The Treasurer's report shows that $679,376.90 had been spent during the year for foreign missionary work. The Board will again take up the controversy about probation after death.

The second race by the Scotch cutter *Thistle* and the American sloop *Volunteer* for the *America's* cup, which was set for September 29, but not sailed for lack of wind until September 30, was won by the *Volunteer* by 11 minutes 47¾ seconds, corrected time. This race was outside New York Bay, and the *Volunteer's* victory settled the contest for this year. On October 1 Mr. Muir of Dumbarton, Scotland, the owner of the yacht *Mabel*, published his determination to build a ninety ton cutter to compete for the cup next year, unless Mr. Bell, of the *Thistle*, again challenges for it.

At Brownsville, Tex., and above that point the overflow of the Rio Grande River has caused the loss of crops and much property.

Chief-Judge Ruger of the New York Court of Appeals September 29 granted another stay of the execution of the sentence of Jacob Sharp, to the very great surprise of the public.

Sir Thomas Henry Grattan Esmonde and Arthur O'Connor, members of Parliament, arrived at New York October 3, to speak in the United States in favor of home rule for Ireland.

Dr. Edward D. Kittoe died at Galena, Ill., September 29, in his seventy-third year. He was a surgeon on Gen. Sherman's and afterwards on Gen. Grant's staff during the civil war. William Russell Sever, the oldest graduate of Harvard College, died at Plymouth, Mass., October 2, aged ninety-six years. He entered Harvard in 1808 and was graduated in 1811. Ex Gov. Alexander H. Holley of Connecticut died on the same day at the age of eighty-three. John B. Finch of Nebraska, the well-known temperance lecturer, died suddenly in Boston October 3.

FOREIGN.

Signor Crispi, Italian Prime Minister, had a conference of two days at Friedrichsruhe October 1-2 with Prince Bismarck, and this meeting has been a subject of comment at all the European capitals. The belief is general that the conference is a peaceful omen.

Signor Crispi, in an interview at Frankfort, October 4, said that the invitation to the conference with Prince Bismarck came from the Prince. The negotiations did not include the Roman question, which Bismarck regards as a matter for the consideration of Italy herself. "Italy demands," he continued, "the maintenance of the European balance of power and of peace—like our allies Germany and Austria." It is reported from Pesth that the interview was held with the full knowledge and sanction of Austria, and that the triple alliance thus cemented cannot fail to have a startling effect on those Powers which appear anxious to disturb the peace of Europe.

The Pope's jubilee receptions were begun September 28. The Roman police seized the jubilee medals, which are inscribed: "Papa Leo XIII. Pontifex et Rex."

The Odessa garrison has been reduced to its normal strength, and the reduction is regarded as proof that Russia has abandoned the idea of armed intervention in the Balkans.

It is reported that Russia will not reply to the Porte's last note suggesting that Turkey and Russia each appoint a commissioner of princely rank to govern Bulgaria for three months, and to convoke a new Sobranye for the election of a prince, until the Czar returns to St. Petersburg.

Several French princes have purchased estates at Cracow, Russia, and intend to become Russian citizens and to enter the army.

It is reported from Baku, Russia, that several new petroleum wells give such an abundant supply that large quantities are sent to Bombay at half the price of American petroleum.

The St. Petersburg *Grashdanin* condemns the optimism of the French with reference to the mobilization of their troops, and points out defects in the recent manœuvres, saying that the most successful operations were purely artificial. "If the Germans," it adds, "admitted that the French mobilization was a success, it was simply to leave the French ignorant of their inferior military organization."

M. Ferry, in a speech at Épinal September 29, said that the Republic regarded the manifesto of the Count of Paris with contemptuous indifference. The people did not fear pretenders. They made it a point of honor to leave their enemies full liberty of attack. The manifesto would doubtless furnish a pretext for attacking the Cabinet, and possibly some Republicans would avail themselves of the chance to desert the party. "If a crisis arises," he concluded, "it will be difficult to solve it. Therefore let us be prepared for all evils."

The contention about the shooting of a French sportsman and an attendant by a German guard on the frontier is whether the French party when the shots were fired were on French or German soil. Blood was discovered on the French side of the line, but the German contention is that the wounded man was shot on German soil, and that he dragged himself across the line. In spite of the conflict between the German and French reports an amicable settlement is expected. September 30 Count von Münster informed M. Flourens that the German Government, without awaiting the result of the judicial inquiry, had decided to grant an indemnity to the widow of the gamekeeper that was killed.

The Municipal Council of Paris has decided to grant 5,000 francs to the widow of the gamekeeper, and to protest against her accepting any indemnity from the German Government.

The French lad Schnaebelé, the arrest of whose father by German police on the Franco-German frontier last spring came near being a *casus belli*, was sentenced to three weeks' imprisonment at Metz, September 28, for nailing a French tricolor on a tree on German territory. An appeal was made to Emperor William for clemency, and he was released September 30.

The Public Prosecutor in Paris has ordered that an action be begun against the manager of the Opéra Comique, two assistants, and two firemen, whose culpable negligence caused the destruction of the theatre and the loss of many lives.

The Hungarian Parliament was opened September 29, and in the imperial message it was declared that friendly relations continue with all the Powers, but that the general situation requires the perfection of the army. Surprise was expressed that no reference was made to the alliance with Germany.

A statue of Francis Deák was unveiled at Pesth September 29, in the presence of Emperor Francis Joseph and representatives of several foreign governments. Count Louis Tisza delivered a eulogy.

J. D. Sullivan, Lord Mayor of Dublin, who is the proprietor of several newspapers, and William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, have been summoned to appear at the Police Court at Dublin to answer to the charge of publishing reports of proceedings of the suppressed branches of the National League. They subsequently held a large League meeting on the estates of the Marquis of Lansdowne at Luggacurren. Mr. O'Brien advocated the vigorous continuance of the plan of campaign inaugurated by the League. The Commission appointed under the Land Act had received, October 1, 16,000 applications for revision of rent. Sir West Ridgway, late head of the Afghan Boundary Commission, has been appointed Under-Secretary for Ireland, to succeed Gen. Buller, resigned.

A score of League meetings were publicly held in different parts of Ireland on Sunday, October 2, several in the Mitchelstown district. To attend one meeting, people evaded the police and went to a fortified house outside the town. A mass-meeting, which was attended by 10,000 persons, was held at Tower Hill, London, on the same day, and speeches were made from six platforms. The speakers condemned the Government's Irish policy and the conduct of the police at Mitchelstown.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, speaking at Birmingham September 29, said that no one was more sincerely animated by friendly feelings towards Americans than he. He regarded the appointment of the Fisheries Commission as affording an opportunity for cementing the union of Great Britain and her colonies. "We granted Canada a Constitution," he said, "making her an independent State save in one respect: we reserved control of her foreign policy. Therefore we are bound to see that the last link that binds Canada to England is not weakened and severed, as it easily might be by our neglect of Canada's interests or indifference to her just rights."

Mrs. Otto Goldschmidt (Jenny Lind) has had a stroke of general paralysis, but her mind is reported to be unimpaired.

Polydore de Keyser, Alderman for Farringdon Without, and a Roman Catholic, has been elected Lord Mayor of London.

The Swiss Bundesrath has decided to subsidize railroads to enable them to run night trains for the accommodation of tourists.

A shock of earthquake was felt throughout Greece October 4.

The death of the Sultan of Morocco was reported October 2. Six thousand Spanish troops were despatched to Morocco October 3 to protect the interests of Spain in case of disorder.

The last news received from the Upper Congo is that Stanley was pushing forward, and the only difficulties he met were the natural obstacles of the country.

By a steamship from Yokohama, which arrived at San Francisco October 3, information was brought of an arrangement between the Chinese Government and the Great Northern Telegraph Company for an extension of lines, which will give a direct telegraphic route from China to the Continent of Europe and Great Britain. Later reports respecting the China-American banking and telegraphic syndicate are conflicting. It is stated that the President of the Chinese Board of Revenue has petitioned the Empress not to grant the proposed concessions, and the China Merchants' Company has repudiated all connection with the syndicate. The English interests in China have been endeavoring to prevent the final consummation of the grant to Americans.

The Corean Government has appointed Ministers to the United States, England, France, Germany, and St. Petersburg.

The deposed King Malietoa of the Samoan Islands has been taken on board a German gunboat and detained, because he did not prevent his subjects from robbing German plantations.

The information brought from the Hawaiian Kingdom September 28 by the steamship *City of Sydney* is, that at the election held September 12 all the members of Parliament, except two representatives in remote districts, were elected on the platform of the reform party, supporting the new Constitution and Ministry.

The trouble between the Provincial Government of Manitoba and the Dominion Government about the building of the Red River Valley Railroad, to compete with the Canadian Railroad, ended abruptly October 1, when the contractor of the new road gave notice to subcontractors to quit work, because he had not received payment. Great disappointment is reported in the province.

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THE POWER TO PURCHASE BONDS.

THE conference between Secretary Fairchild and a number of bankers on September 28 had reference to the possible conditions of the finances after the requirements of the sinking-fund are met for the current year, and after that mode of egress for the surplus funds of the Treasury shall have been stopped.

The Sinking-Fund Law was passed February 25, 1862, being a part of the act of Congress authorizing the issue of the so-called 5-20 bonds. It provided that the money received from customs duties should be applied, first, to the payment of the interest on the public debt, and second—

"to the purchase or payment of 1 per cent. of the entire debt of the United States, to be made within each fiscal year, which is to be set apart as a sinking-fund, and the interest of which shall in like manner be applied to the purchase or payment of the public debt, as the Secretary of the Treasury shall from time to time direct."

The sinking-fund, it will be observed, consists of two parts: (1) 1 per cent. of the entire debt; (2) the interest on the debt embraced in the sinking-fund. The two sums together amounted for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, to something over $35,000,000. For the current fiscal year the amount is something less, owing to the rapid redemption of the principal during the past twelve months. In fact, the Secretary's recent offer to buy $14,000,000 of bonds at a fixed price was intended to fill the requirements of the sinking-fund for the year ending June 30, 1888. What next? The inflow of surplus revenue is not going to stop when the sinking-fund is full. The same causes which are operating now to draw money out of business channels and lock it up will continue to operate.

In the latter part of Secretary Sherman's administration of the Treasury, Congress passed a law to meet the emergency of an excess of revenue over and above the requirements of the sinking-fund. This was a section of the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, approved March 3, 1881, viz.:

"That the Secretary of the Treasury may at any time apply the surplus money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, or so much thereof as he may consider proper, to the purchase or redemption of United States bonds: provided,

"That the bonds so purchased or redeemed shall constitute no part of the sinking-fund, but shall be cancelled."

It would be impossible to write the English language more plainly than it is here written, and if we turn back to the time and circumstances in which this law was passed, we shall find that the intention was to prevent an undue accumulation of funds in the Treasury. A considerable part of the public debt was falling due in 1881, and it was not known how it would be met or refunded. It was actually met by Secretary Windom's plan for extending the bonds at a reduced rate of interest, and making them payable at call. At the time when this act was passed it was necessary to provide for all contingencies, including that of a possible gorge of money in the Treasury.

This exigency did not arise in 1881, but it is certain to arise soon. It is extremely fortunate that there is such a law. It is quite certain that if there had been no such power in the Secretary's hands, Congress would have conferred it upon him last winter. The subject was considered with much circumspection in the Senate, and the conclusion of the most experienced financiers in that body was that the power to buy bonds, over and above the sinking-fund requirement, could not be conferred more explicitly than it had been by the act of March 3, 1881.

The only objection that has been urged to the exercise of the power is that it is a dangerous power. The answer to this is two-fold: (1) that Congress took account of the dangers when it passed the law, and must have assumed that the danger of not having it was greater than any other dangers in the premises; (2) that it is dangerous only in the hands of a dangerous man. We presume that Secretary Fairchild does not account himself such. But what are the dangers? What do they consist of? Nothing but this, that a bad secretary might use this power for purposes of speculation. Now, the Secretary is fully able to control himself in this behalf, and we may add that he is not under suspicion, even in the smallest degree. But is this danger any greater in the case of purchases under the act of March 3, 1881, than under that of February 25, 1862—the Sinking-Fund Act? To us they seem to be precisely alike. Anybody who can buy bonds under the one without danger can buy under the other. All public officers should, of course, be careful of their reputation, but there is no better protection of reputation than innocence.

But are there no dangers on the other side? Is not the existing state of the public finances itself a menace to all business? If it is not such, why has the sinking-fund requirement for a whole year been filled in the space of two months? Is not that a confession of a class of dangers much greater than any danger arising from the exercise of a power conferred upon the Secretary by Congress after full deliberation, and in view of exactly the state of affairs which has now come about? If there is any other danger in the exercise of this undoubted power than the one we have indicated, we have never heard it mentioned, and we cannot imagine what it may be.

KEEPING THE TREASURY OUT OF WALL STREET.

THE present posture of the Treasury as an absorber and hoarder of money not wanted by the Government has led to some discussion in the press of plans for depositing the public funds in banks, as is the custom in other civilized countries, and as was the custom here until Gen. Jackson's quarrel with the United States Bank led to the breaking down of that institution and the establishment of the sub-treasury system. Very little argument is needed to show that the excess of public receipts over disbursements, whether large or small, ought to be kept at the service of the public, and not hoarded. Whether the hoard be public or private, it is equally deleterious and unscientific. The progress of civilization has nearly done away with private hoarding, which at one time, and not so very long ago, absorbed a large part of the money of Europe. The establishment of banks of deposit and savings has gradually drawn upon the secret receptacles of money in the Old World, and put at the service of mankind immense sums that were formerly hidden behind chimneys or buried in the earth, and not seldom lost altogether by the death of the hoarders, who carried their secret with them to the grave.

Public hoarding is in some respects more deleterious than private, for the reason that it operates upon the imaginations of the business community, and tends to promote distrust and fear. Such has notably been the effect of the small accumulation of money since the last of the 3 per cent. bonds were paid off. The apprehension of danger was greater than the danger itself. Statesmanship has to take account of apprehensions quite as much as of the facts they rest on, and it is pretty certain that there will be a large stock of alarms, whether well or ill founded, until a substantial equality between public receipts and disbursements shall have been reached. But can such substantial equality be reached while there is still upwards of a thousand millions of public debt, redeemable at different periods of time, outstanding? It would be hardly possible to bring about an exact "balance of the budget" even if there were no debt outstanding, the reduction of taxes being complicated with protectionism on the one hand, and with a rapidly growing population and a corresponding "elasticity of the revenue" on the other. When we take into account the still outstanding debt, and the need of preserving sufficient taxes to pay it off when it falls due, we shall see that the jerkiness of the Treasury, of which we are now having a taste, is not likely to be stopped by the magic of a single tax-repealing bill. The readjustment of taxation to the public needs will be a protracted job. In fact, it is the one job that never ends, because the conditions of society and government, of which taxation is a necessary accompaniment, are ever changing.

The need of a public depository of surplus public funds has not hitherto been felt, because the national debt has answered every purpose of a national bank. It has taken the excess of the Treasury's income, whether large or small, and paid it to those who were compelled to turn it over and over in order to make their living. Before the war the receipts and disbursements were so closely calculated to balance each other, and were altogether so small, that no public depository was required. The situation is now changed, and so much changed that consideration must be given to some means for "taking the Treasury out of Wall Street." For it is obvious that so long as the Treasury takes in more money than it pays out, the Treasury is in Wall Street. It only gets out of Wall Street when it gets rid of its surplus. Taking in an excess and getting rid of it is exactly what keeps the Treasury in Wall Street, and there it will be and remain as long as there is a surplus.

Other countries keep out of their respective Wall Streets by depositing all their moneys in a bank of sufficient capital and responsibility to insure safety to the funds. So did we until Gen. Jackson's quarrel with the Bank of the United States. The memory of that great political struggle and its unfortunate ending—unfortunate to all the parties concerned—has

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created a prejudice against the very name of a United States Bank. But it is the judgment of impartial history that the first Bank of the United States (Hamilton's) was a wholly beneficent institution, and that the second one was such until Jackson made his attack upon it. The attack was unprovoked, unjust, unstatesmanlike, and unbusinesslike. It is altogether one of the most shameful chapters in our history. Yet the popular conception is that Jackson was right, and that the bank was a "monster." So completely has this idea laid hold upon the public mind that probably no step could be taken at present towards the establishment of such a bank on any terms. Yet the underlying idea that there should be some means by which public moneys may be kept at the service of commerce when not needed by the Government, and yet without involving the Government itself in the business of banking, is sound, and must, we think, force itself more and more upon public attention as years roll on.

A LINE OF DIVISION APPEARING.

THE most striking feature of political developments during the year 1887 is the appearance of a line of division between the two great parties on fundamental issues. Such a line once existed and was clearly defined, but during the last years of Republican Administration it gradually faded out. There was no great question upon which men took sides as Republicans and Democrats so that one needed only to know which party a man favored to know what policy he supported. As regarded pensions, for example, Republicans and Democrats vied with each other in championing the most extravagant measures. So as to the tariff, both parties in their national platforms of 1884 inveighed against the surplus as an insupportable evil, and Republicans as well as Democrats pledged themselves to reduce it by abolishing the unnecessary taxation which produced it. On the question which underlies all others, of the proper scope of the Federal Government, many Democrats had so far abandoned the traditional attitude of the party that membership of the organization did not prevent them from voting for a measure so glaringly unconstitutional as the proposition to take money from the National Treasury to support State schools, or to grant allowances from the same fund for the purchase of seeds for farmers in any State which had had a run of bad luck.

The first clear indication of a change came with the President's vetoes of the Pauper Pension Bill and the Texas Seed Bill last February. Both bills had been very generally supported by Democrats as well as Republicans, and a veto of neither was anticipated at the time of its passage. The exigencies of party discipline forced enough Democratic Congressmen to sustain the Democratic President in these cases to make his vetoes effective, while the Republican managers, despite the general support of Mr. Cleveland's action by Republican newspapers, decided to cast a solid party vote against him. The Republicans thus committed themselves to extravagant pension legislation, while the Democrats, aside from a small contingent of demagogues, ranged themselves alongside of their President in opposition. These respective attitudes of the two parties in Congress have been so fully endorsed by the organizations of the two parties throughout the country, that it is now evident that the only hope of escaping the wildest schemes of the pension grabbers is in a Democratic Congress, or, failing that, a Democratic President ready to exercise the veto power; the Republicans being now committed to compliance with any demand which may be made upon them.

The pension question is only one phase of the wider question of extravagance or economy in the administration of the Government. So recently as 1884 the Republicans still clung to the position formulated in their platform of 1868, that "the Government of the United States should be administered with the strictest economy"; but in 1887 they have entirely abandoned it. Not a word in favor of economy is now ever heard in Republican platforms. Extravagance, thinly veiled under the euphuism of "liberal appropriations," is now the demand—the Ohio platform phrasing it, "liberal pensions to the soldiers and sailors of the Union, adequate appropriations for the improvement of our national waterways, and national aid to education," while the Massachusetts platform puts it thus: "We favor liberal appropriations for the reconstruction of our navy, for coast defences, for internal improvements, and for proper national aid to education; also, adequate pensions for our disabled soldiers and sailors."

The support of extravagance as a national policy in the future is accompanied by the failure of the Republican party longer to advocate a reduction of the tariff. In 1884 its national platform protested against "the burden of unnecessary taxation," which is as heavy now as it was then, and declared that "the Republican party pledges itself to correct the irregularities of the tariff and to reduce the surplus." Now the *Tribune* declares that "no body of citizens anywhere asks for a reduction of the tariff unless in conventions packed by office-holders," and the statement is true as regards Republican conventions. The Ohio platform only recognizes the existence of any surplus, after its "liberal appropriations" are made, as a remote possibility, in which case it favors the abolition of the internal tax upon American-grown tobacco. The Massachusetts platform also regards the existence of any surplus, after its "liberal appropriations" are made, as problematical, and contents itself with the mild suggestion that, "to meet further the question of a Treasury surplus," a reduction of internal-revenue taxation is recommended, and that the time has come for Congress to "carefully consider" the tariff on sugar. The New York and Pennsylvania platforms do not admit the necessity of any reduction of the tariff. Indeed, the plain intention, as it would be the necessary result, of the policy of extravagance is to do away with the surplus produced by "unnecessary taxation" through unnecessary spending, so that there may be no surplus to bother over.

As a part of this policy of extravagance, a dangerous extension of Federal authority is now taken up as a party policy by the Republican managers. Despite the earnest protests of a few Republicans like Senator Hawley against the grossly unconstitutional nature of the proposition, the Republican platforms this year are endorsing the scheme of national aid to education, by which Senator Blair proposes to dispose of $77,000,000 of the surplus. Nor is this all. Here in New York the Republican party proceeds a step further, and asks the general Government to interfere in the matter of State canals in these words: "National support of the Erie Canal, the great highway for the products of the West to the seaboard, is favored and invited."

On all these issues the drift is as strong the other way among the Democrats. While some of the Southerners have been seduced by the $77,000,000 bribe into supporting the Blair bill, the better portion of the party in Congress is against it, and nobody doubts that the Democratic President would veto it as quickly as he did the Texas Seed Bill if it should ever reach him. While a small wing of the Democrats in Congress have hitherto blocked tariff reform by voting with a nearly solid Republican party against it, the bulk of the party is sound on this issue. On the proposition further to extend national authority, as in the Erie Canal aid scheme, the Democrats are as positive as could be wished, their platform declaring that "the State of New York needs and will accept no Federal aid for the improvement or maintenance of its canal system."

It is thus obvious that there is at present a strong drift towards a well defined line of division between the parties on fundamental issues in the campaign of 1888. If the drift continues for twelve months to come, the next Presidential election will be a contest involving great questions of national policy.

THE ASSESSMENT EVIL.

THE annual sale of offices to the highest bidder is now in progress in this city, and we wish very much that public attention could be so concentrated upon the transaction as to create a popular demand for the radical reform of our entire election machinery. There is much talk in the newspapers about various candidates and their strength before the people, but every intelligent student of our system of nomination knows that a controlling test of every candidate is, "Can he pay the assessment?" If he cannot pay it, has he a "hall" that will pay it for him? If the assessment is not forthcoming from some source, the man cannot be nominated, no matter how great his strength may be. If the office to be filled is a Supreme Court judgeship, the price of a nomination ranges from $10,000 to $20,000; if it be a Comptrollership, the price is $10,000; for a united nomination for District Attorney it is $5,000 to each of two "halls"; and for nominations for the minor judgeships, State Senators, and Assemblymen, it ranges from $500 to $10,000.

Unless a candidate for a nomination can pay the price asked, or can get somebody else to pay it for him, he cannot be nominated. This is a scandalous state of affairs, but who is

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responsible for it? Not the halls and the politicians, but the people of the city and State. It is the people who, through their law-makers, have failed to make any provision for defraying the expense of printing and distributing the ballots on election day, that are responsible for this annual sale of offices. The State provides for the registration of the vote and for its reception and counting, but makes no provision whatever for the printing and distributing of ballots. What the State has failed to do, the political machines have been built up to do, and as a matter of course they do it in the way best calculated to further their own interests. They meet the expense by a tax levy upon the candidates, and the candidates recoup themselves from the public treasury after election, either by means of exorbitant salaries, or by resorting to some of the methods of indirect pilferings which are so familiar to politicians. If a candidate's assessment is paid by a "hall," he pays back the obligation by quartering a sufficient number of "workers" upon the city-pay-rolls, or in other ways enabling them to get living at the city's expense. Every general election in this city, involving the choice of a Mayor and other high officers, requires an assessment fund of at least $400,000. This year it will not be so large, but it will be at least half that sum. Why should the candidates be called upon to pay this tax, which belongs to the city as clearly as the tax for poll clerks and inspectors?

Any man can see that the necessity for such a tax must inevitably affect the character of the candidates. It bars out all but the rich or those who have the support of the "halls." The poor man who stands outside the "halls," and whose personal friends are unable to put up the money for him, has no chance. Even if he were to receive a popular nomination, he could not hope for an election, because there is no existing machinery by which he can get his ballots distributed at the polls. We have a case in point here now. Mr. Nicoll has made a most creditable record as Assistant District Attorney. There is a distinct and gratifying public sentiment in favor of his nomination for the head of the office. But it is a moral impossibility for him to get a regular nomination, and equally a moral impossibility for him to get an election on an irregular nomination. He stands outside the "halls," he is not connected with either of them as "their man," and their leaders will not hear of his candidacy. Suppose, now, that there should be a citizens' movement to take him up, or suppose the Republican Machine were to consent to make him their candidate. If he were the citizens' candidate, an entirely new machine would have to be organized to distribute his ballots on election day. It would cost as much to do this as it has in previous years to run an independent candidate for Mayor—that is, between $60,000 and $100,000. Even with that outlay, the chances would be ten to one that he would be sold out at the polls by the very men who were hired to distribute his ballots; for every one of the 37,000 workers of the various machines, whose business would be at stake in the contest, would be his bitter and most wily enemy from the start. If he were to be the candidate of the Republican Machine, his case would be even more hopeless, for he would be nominated solely to be "sold out."

With an election law providing for the printing and distribution of ballots at the public expense, and allowing the candidacy of any man who could be named for a position by a specified number of citizens, this could all be changed: Mr. Nicoll, or any other capable official, could snap his finger at the "halls," and could take the field as a candidate without submitting to an assessment and without fear of "knifing" at the polls. It is the grossest neglect of our own interests for us as a community to go on year after year under the present system. It is putting a premium upon misgovernment. It bars from office the men most fit, and opens wide the door for dishonesty and extravagance. We cannot get more than two or three honest men out of the thirty-one which represent us at Albany each year. The others buy their nominations for from two to ten times as much as their salaries amount to, and get their money back by selling their votes or by favoring the most vicious kinds of "hall" legislation.

The project for a new election law, which attracted so wide attention through the debates of the Commonwealth Club last winter, is to be revived this year, and we are assured that a carefully prepared measure, applying to the large cities of the entire State, will be presented in the next Legislature soon after it comes together. A more laudable work could not be undertaken, and every citizen, whatever his politics, who has the welfare of popular government at heart, ought to give it his most earnest support.

THE DREAM OF THE COMTE DE PARIS.

THE great vision of the Comte de Paris, the narrative of which he published two or three weeks ago in the form of a manifesto "to the representatives of the Monarchist party in France," may thus be epitomized in his own moods and tenses: France will pass through one of her periodic violent crises. This crisis will be the work of Republicans, when demagogy shall have led to civil strife, or faction attempted the seizing of the supreme power by force. The monarchy will be hailed as the restorer of order and concord. That monarchy will not mark a retrograde step. It will but steady French democracy. It will renew the old pact between the nation and the Capet family. This pact will be recalled into force by a constituent assembly, or by the more solemn agency of a popular vote. As an act for ever, it will be carried out on the basis of universal suffrage. The country will desire a strong government. To fit this the method of election will have to be modified. The King will govern with the concurrence of the Chambers. The Senate will be in part elective, and have equal authority with the Chamber of Deputies. By both royalty will be enlightened and guided, but not enslaved, leaning for support on either the one or the other. The budget, instead of being voted annually, will be an ordinary law. The annual financial project will contain only modifications of it. New taxes will require the consent of the representatives of the nation, who will also have the right of discussing all subjects of national interest and of listening to complaints of abuses. The monarchy—thus the story of the vision goes on—will have to re-establish financial economy, administrative order, and judicial independence. It will have to raise by peaceful means the position of France in Europe, to make her respected and her alliance sought after. The Ministers will in this work be free from the fear of an omnipotent Chamber, as they will be responsible to three branches of legislative power. The monarchy will be strong abroad, and yet able to relieve ruinous military burdens. It will protect all religions, guarantee respect to the clergy, restore the freedom of Christian education, and insure liberty to religious as well as secular institutions. It will raise the discipline of the army. It will study industrial problems, work for the amelioration of the lot of the laboring classes, endeavor to bring about social pacification, leave the new strata of society in the enjoyment of the advantages recently obtained, maintain universal suffrage, and leave unpretending and honest Republican office-holders in their positions. That the King will be the first servant of France is the last word of the dream.

M. Ferry, in a speech on Thursday, declared that the Republic regarded this dream with "contemptuous indifference." If he had said "ignorant indifference," it would doubtless be true of the country at large, because we presume nine-tenths of the provincial voters do not even know who the Comte de Paris is. But he admits that it is not true of the Chambers, for he says it will probably be made a pretext for attacking the Cabinet, and an excuse by some Republicans for deserting their party, and expresses a fear that a ministerial "crisis" may arise out of it. The meaning of this is, that the Cabinet has owed its capacity to hold its own during the past six months to the support of Royalists who had come to the conclusion that the weakness of successive ministries, the facility with which they were overthrown, and the instability thus introduced into the management of public business, constituted a great danger for the country. It is feared that the Comte de Paris's manifesto may have sufficient influence on these men to make them feel that they ought not to do anything further to save the Republic from discredit or danger, and that as soon as they fall away from the Ministry the Radicals will attack it fiercely for ever having had their support.

On the other hand, the manifesto, in adopting the Bonapartist plan of substituting the popular vote for divine right, or "the grace of God," as the source of sovereignty, has profoundly afflicted a large body of the Monarchists, while it has filled Paul de Cassagnac and the other surviving Bonapartists with glee as a grand vindication of the main plank in their own platform. The adoption of it is certainly the most serious step, and at the same time the most absurd, that the head of the house of Bourbon has ever taken, for it is clear that no two things can be more opposed than the hereditary principle and the bestowal of the crown by popular vote. If the Comte de Paris were restored to-morrow by a plébiscite, he might be the choice of the majority as the best man available for the chief magistracy. If his son were to succeed him by inheritance, however,

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without obtaining the confirmation of a popular vote, it would be a violation of the principle of popular sovereignty. If, on the other hand, every heir to the throne had to be elected, what would become of the hereditary principle? And then there would be something manifestly absurd in asking people to vote simply to put on the throne a particular man who was always designated beforehand by his father, or grandfather, or uncle.

This curious combination of two irreconcilable theories was a device of Napoleon III., but he had no chance of putting it into practice. Nor would the Comte de Paris have the chance, even if he got back to the throne of his ancestors. If the people are allowed to elect monarchs at all, they cannot be compelled to choose the candidates always from among the members of a particular family, and still less to vote only for the eldest male of a particular family. No such device would ever have been thought of, in fact, in any country in which the monarchical tradition had any strength, and nothing is more certain than that the popular vote cannot in our day make what kings call a king. It can make dictators and Presidents, but it cannot make that curious mediæval magistrate whom people reverence and obey, without reference either to his character or capacity, on simple proof of a certain descent. There is something pathetic in the Comte de Paris's attempt to get the French majority to crown him as a descendant of Louis XIII., for he is an able, conscientious, and honest man, who would make an excellent chief magistrate, but the bulk of Frenchmen have ceased even to understand the royalist claim. They understand the claims of a ruler who has an army at his back, and has "got the drop on them," as they say in the West, or of a ruler whom they have chosen because they consider him the best man for the place; but they do not understand the claims of a man who says they ought to crown and obey him, and pay him a large salary, because he was born of certain parents.

THE ETHICS OF LITERARY CRITICISM.

"WHAT ought a writer to do when another mutilates, falsifies, and radically misrepresents his ideas, and then, after having made him out different from what he is, falls upon him for the purpose of bringing his character under suspicion?"

"What ought we all to do to the end that the effort to get at the truth, the effort which inspires our scientific research, may also at last become the guiding star of our literary criticism?"

These are the two questions to which Wilhelm Wundt, the well-known professor of philosophy, addresses himself in a recent brochure entitled "Zur Moral der literarischen Kritik." The pamphlet is interesting less for its substance of doctrine or for the novelty of its results than for its mode of treatment. The "case," as stated by the pamphleteer and by him made the starting-point of a general discussion which has interested us, is this: In the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for March, 1887, appeared an article by Hugo Sommer upon "Wilhelm Wundt's Ethical Evolutionism." In this essay, written by a professed representative of Christian ethics, the writer commits, as Prof. Wundt pretty conclusively shows, nearly all the gravest sins of which a critic can be guilty. He writes without any adequate knowledge of the book he is criticising; ascribes to his author views which the author not only does not hold, but has been at pains to criticise adversely; adduces expressions of opinion and omits essential qualifications; manufactures quotations, either out of whole cloth or by garbling the text, patching together sentences and phrases that do not belong together, changing important words and interpolating matter of his own; charges his author with ignoring or having no conception of matters which the author has in reality discussed at length; gives, in short, an utterly false and distorted impression of the man he is talking about, and then indulges in intimations calculated to injure him with certain portions of the public.

After having thus set forth the facts, Prof. Wundt invites his assailant to a calm consideration of the case as an ethical problem. Come, he says, let us inquire what a man ought to do who has been treated as you have treated me. Let us reason together, your ethics against mine (Herr Sommer is the author of a book, 'Conscience and Modern Culture'); you who think that the idea of evolution is for ethical purposes empty and worthless, and I who think it of the greatest importance; you who hold in substance that the advent of Christianity said the last word in the process of man's moral improvement, and I who think that it was only the beginning of a new era; you who represent individualism and passive submission to the will of God, and I who stand for evolutionism, and look for improvement in the future through active resistance to evil.

Having thus laid out his work, the author first gives us a chapter entitled "The Test of Individualism," the philosophy of which he reduces to something like this: It is all of no use, things will only go on as they were going before; we should submit to the inevitable and get what comfort we can from the consolations of religion. Prof. Wundt disclaims any intention of casting a stone at the consolations of religion; but making, as he does, a sharp distinction between religious motives and ethical ends, he finds that this philosophy holds out a cheerless prospect. Applied to the case in hand, he argues, it will simply help to bring on an era in which the malicious or ignorant critic shall go on doing his wretched work without let or hindrance, and in which the attacked party shall seem always in the wrong. Such a state of affairs must react unfavorably upon the progress of knowledge, particularly where the critic is an acknowledged authority, and the object of his attentions a writer who has yet to win his spurs. In such cases criticism may do immense harm by chilling the ardor and poisoning the life of those who might otherwise do creditable work. It is of little use, so Prof. Wundt thinks, to say, as is so often said, that if the writer's work really be good, hostile criticism cannot in the long run harm him. This is cold comfort, because we are not here for the long run, and one of the most potent incentives to good work is the approval of contemporaries. Naturally our author concludes at the end of his reflections that the "test of individualism," the philosophy of quietism and passive submission, fails. For ethical purposes, and as applied to the case in hand, it declares its own bankruptcy in advance.

Then we have the "Test of Evolutionism." Under this head the writer glances at the evolution of the literary conscience as we now know it; remarks upon the history of plagiarism, forgery, and such like frauds; also upon piracy, and upon the change that has taken place quite recently in the tone, if not in the spirit, of literary controversy. From all this he concludes both that there has been great improvement in the past, and that this improvement is, in part at least, due to well-directed effort. The final upshot of the matter is, therefore, that it is the duty of a person circumstanced like himself to reply to his critic, expose falsifications, and restore the defaced image of the truth; not, indeed, in the hope of convincing his censor or turning him all at once from the error of his ways, but in the hope of inspiring in him a faint sense of shame, which may perhaps serve to render him a little, even were it but infinitesimally, more careful the next time, and which, being then duly passed down to his children and his children's children, may at last grow into a thrifty and sensitive literary conscience.

As before remarked, there is nothing novel in this conclusion, considered as a practical maxim of conduct. It simply recommends the course which writers are very generally in the habit of pursuing when they deem themselves unfairly treated by a critic who is worth replying to. And evidently, in applying the rule, this last consideration cannot be left out of the account, since, if authors of repute should, out of tender solicitude for their misguided critics and for future generations, undertake to reply to every criticism which seemed to them unjust or something worse, many of them would have little else to do, and original production would languish.

From the above outline, which is tolerably exhaustive, it will be seen that our German philosopher is not a pessimist and not a radical. He sees hope, and sees it this side of the guillotine; and so we venture to commend him to those of our Anglo-Saxon friends who take so dark and even desperate a view of the critic evil. How deeply many people feel on this subject is well known. Of what use is your critic anyway? we hear them asking from time to time. Are not his praise and his blame alike impotent to affect the course of events? Does not the world go on its way precisely as if he had not been? Does not the arbiter of letters at any particular time become, with all his personal rules and standards and decisions, simply a more or less amusing reminiscence for the next generation? What importance can possibly attach to the dicta of a guild whose craft is in such a condition that if you take three representatives of it, all of them apparently equally competent, and submit to them the same work, the work will very likely touch the heart of one, the spleen of another, and leave the third untouched? And then, is it not nobler to have made the poorest original effort than to have written the best imaginable criticism of it? Is not this business of *talking* about what other people have *done*, a tiresome and foolish business, which it would be well to do away with?

Questions of this kind are most likely to arise when the mind is overheated and in a state of ferment; and for the purpose of cooling and clarifying the mind, nothing is better than the study of history. To the mind thus calmed, it can but seem rather foolish to regard anybody's opinion as worthless simply because the next generation has no need of it. The opinions of critics about books are, in the process of the suns, neither more nor less nugatory than the opinions of other people about other subjects. The opinions are themselves a part of the historical process. Nor is it very philosophical to try to cast contempt upon the critic as a parasite, a being who lives and thrives upon what is given him by others. We are all of us the children of those that have gone before, and criticism at its best is a fine art which is just as truly creative as any other art, and is also, like other fine arts, capable of affording a high kind of intellectual enjoyment. This is the right point of view from which to look at the subject.

But when is criticism at its best, and what is to be done to better it? It is of no use to indulge in outbursts of despair which hint at no other

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remedy than the total abolition of the critic tribe. Abolition is impracticable. The critic is here, and he can neither be legislated out of existence nor led up by remonstrance to the point of self-extinction. The only thing to do is to improve him by cultivation. Among practical suggestions looking to this end, the favorite one at the present day is to convert him into a reporter, whose business it shall be to depict, and if necessary explain, but not to pass judgment. Now there is undoubtedly some plausibility in such a recommendation, from the very fact that the world seems to be actually moving in that direction. Much of what passes for the best criticism in our day is little else than portraiture and what is called historical interpretation. Taking the literary world as a whole, and allowing for occasional exceptions, which may be scientifically classed as atavisms, we are certainly drifting away from that dogmatic and self-assertive *Besserwisserei* which our fathers looked upon as the perfection of the art critical. And so it is perhaps natural that we should allow the imagination to range forward to the time when this process of evolution shall have been completed, and a literary millennium shall have arrived in which the critic, and even his humble cousin the reviewer, shall appear as a simple reporter engaged in telling the public, as gracefully and as urbanely as possible, what certain authors are and how they came to be so, and studiously keeping aloof from the delicate questions of what the said authors ought to be and how they might improve themselves.

But really we cannot persuade ourselves that this dream is likely to be realized. The recent past has been characterized by a marvellous awakening of the scientific historical sense. The best minds all at once found before them a new and enormous task in the effort to understand the course of intellectual phenomena, and this task has proved vastly more captivating than that of dealing out praise and blame. But the scientific work is only of the first importance; it is not everything. When it is done, and even while it is doing, there is everywhere room for personal opinions, and there is no occasion for keeping these opinions back. They may become antiquated in a decade, but none the less they are, as was remarked before, a part of the historical process, and it is the resultant of their clashing which largely creates what we call the historical perspective. They will not affect the past, yet they will, though perhaps in unseen ways, affect the future. In dealing with contemporary work, moreover, a critic or a reviewer may always indulge in a reasonable hope that his opinion, if capable and honest and based on stated grounds, may be at once and directly serviceable to the author criticised as well as instructive to the public at large. The world is full of writers who do not hesitate to acknowledge their indebtedness to their critics.

In short, the best criticism will continue to be hereafter, as it has been heretofore, the candid and well-expressed judgment of a good judge. It is not the critic's opinions that are objectionable, but his dishonest or ignorant opinions, or perhaps his offensive way of expressing himself. To correct his dishonesty he needs more conscience, and here, as Wundt suggests, an occasional flagellation may be useful, even if the remedy act but slowly. To correct his ignorance he needs knowledge, which comes of research. To improve his mode of expressing himself he needs many things, but chiefly, perhaps—well, to avoid a simple repetition of Mr. Matthew Arnold's familiar prescription, let us say that he needs—horizon. It may be that in the very plenitude of his knowledge, and with all his devotion to truth, he will fail occasionally to lay hold of and take home what there is of truth in these words of Wilhelm Scherer, himself a great scholar as well as a very capable critic:

"Scholarship sometimes renders men proud, self-sufficient, jealous, and cantankerous. It is apt to destroy plain common sense and clearness of vision. It propagates intellectual subtleties and its own artificial taste. It has poisoned entire literary epochs by its boastful assumption of superiority and its conceited exclusiveness. It creates false standards for men, and, employing the delusive name of culture, it estimates a quantity of some particular kind of information at a higher value than the old mysterious power of the heart."

GENERAL IMPRESSIONS OF AN IRISHMAN IN ENGLAND.

AMBLESIDE, August 28, 1887.

IT is difficult to exaggerate the interests of travel in England to an English-speaking person of mature age, whose mind is open to unbiassed impressions. The thorn in the flesh which most Irishmen have hitherto carried about with them, and which naturally rankled most when in England, is being rapidly removed by the good sense of the English masses aroused by the present agitation, and an Irishman comes here now in a state of mind to appreciate and enjoy as he never could before. Here he finds a perfected civilization, order, progress. At home, little is settled or determined. Ireland is, as it were, a country in which a harrow had been drawn over the land and over the surface of society every few generations. Most that is old is crumbling into ruin or rotting in decay—most, save the vigorous life of the Roman Catholic Church, now asserting itself in all directions under the perfect religious equality we enjoy.

These facts were renewedly and painfully borne in on me some weeks ago by a visit to old haunts in the County of Wexford—one of the most interesting counties in Ireland, strangely neglected by ordinary tourists. The land itself looked lovelier than ever, the people (those that remain) better off than of yore; but the hand of ruin was apparent everywhere. The bad old order of things has passed away; a new has not shaped itself. On all hands appeared neglected and deserted farms, crumbling homesteads, deserted highways. No one that remembered the district forty-five years ago could shut his eyes to the change that has passed over it. Changes are most perceptible in localities visited at long intervals. Perhaps it was even more apparent to one brought up a member of the Society of Friends, who found the meeting-houses of his youth deserted or in ruins, the graveyards covered with weeds, the sect almost unknown in a portion of the country once largely inhabited by its votaries.

Society has not as yet found its level and its basis in Ireland. In my opinion Ireland was behind the rest of western Europe when it was occupied by the Anglo-Normans. It was not their interest there to settle down as they settled down in England. They broke up what remained of the old Celtic civilization, they effectually arrested its possible growth without implanting a civilization of their own. The castles and churches they built over the length and breadth of the land were, for the most part, poor imitations of the piles with which they beautified England, and which have remained the pride and glory of succeeding generations. The resources of the country were from the first applied to the building up of another nation. Then came the Reformation. The Irish people held on to the old religion. Their conquerors, who adopted the reformed, were strong enough to prevent them from using the church buildings which they themselves were not numerous enough to occupy. These buildings went to decay. The wars of the seventeenth century did for the residences of the upper classes what the oppressions of the Tudors had done for ecclesiastical property. The Cromwellian and Williamite settlers, among whom the land was parcelled out, then built towns and villages and country residences. The people emerged from the bogs and mountains and from beyond the Shannon, erected their mud hovels, and commenced the reclamation of the country for which they and their descendants had to pay in increased rents. The penal laws laid their heavy hand on Ireland. The jealousy of English competitors threw its manufactories into ruins. A brighter day again appeared dawning. The Union again threw everything into confusion. Steady progress was impossible in a society which did not rest upon the good-will of the masses. Ireland became the plaything of English parties, the sport of political experimenters. And so it has come to pass that as the land is covered with the remains of the raths and stone monuments of pagan times, so is it dotted with the ruins of castles and churches, and of the mansions and manufactories and cottages which each succeeding experiment and system has called into being and cast into decay; and this material ruin is but a type of the social and political chaos which exists. In Ireland one sees but the broken, elementary fragments of that high form of civilization which exists in England, and which doubtless it was the desire of many of her statesmen and many of the bands of settlers that crossed the Channel to implant in the sister island.

I have every confidence in our future. In many respects, the social order that will be evolved by Ireland will be different from that existing here. What forms it will take, it is impossible to predicate. In the spiritual nature and many noble characteristics of our people, left free to develop themselves under self-government, amid the difficulties and breezy influences of competition with other peoples, which cannot be evaded in the present age, we surely have grounds to hope for something high and good.

Travel where you will in England, unless in the slums of her great cities, you feel that you are in a long-settled land, one of "old renown," where freedom has "slowly broadened down from precedent to precedent." And if you study the criminal and educational statistics, look at the Board schools everywhere, and can compare the appearance and demeanor of the masses with what they were forty or even twenty years ago, you will realize the immense strides she has of late made in civilization, and the greater possibilities of the future. At the same time, we must guard against being too much carried away by outward appearances. It is out of these lovely old villages, with their abounding flowers, bright window-panes, snowy curtains, and spotless doorsteps; from out of the shadow of these cathedral closes, fresh from the influences of church, and grammar and Sunday-schools, and a thousand ennobling and hallowed associations, have come the politicians and soldiers, ready for any unjust and bloody work abroad, among subject races and peoples of lesser intelligence, when the supposed material interests of England were concerned. And those intimately acquainted with the social life of the masses in Ireland and in England will tell us that beneath all this fair exterior there are at work debasing influences and characteristics existent in but a small degree in Ireland, under all our discouraging externals. Nevertheless, we must not compare the English people with our ideal of what a great people should be, and what doubtless they will yet attain to, but with the spectacle presented by other equally great and vigorous peoples in the past and present who have had equal opportunities of influencing the world for good and evil. And we in Ireland shall make a great mistake if we let self-satisfaction at certain qualities upon which we justly

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pride ourselves, blind us to the incontestable superiority of the English in many respects in which it is within our power to imitate them. I look forward to that as being one of the greatest benefits that will be conferred upon us by the withdrawal of English interference in Irish local affairs—that we shall then be ready to admire and imitate all that is great and good and admirable in them.

Travelling is cheaper here than in Ireland. The third-class carriages attached even to nearly all express trains are as comfortable, and for the most part, more comfortable, than most of our second-class. We have travelled by none other, and have met but cleanly and decent people. And here smoking and its unpleasant concomitants are confined to special compartments. In personal cleanliness the masses of the English people are as yet infinitely before ours. In Ireland there are good (in the British, not in your or the Swiss sense) first-class hotels in the larger towns and most of the tourist centres. It is never safe, without special information, to try a second-class establishment. Generally speaking, our hotel accommodation, often dear, is of the worst quality. Lodgings for short periods are not to be had; and for long periods, of a satisfactory kind, difficult to procure. Unless we mend our practice in these respects, we shall, with all our magnificent scenery and charming health resorts, lose much of the tourist custom even of our own people. Everywhere in England we have found clean and cheap second-class hotels. The increase of the number of comfortable temperance hotels and refreshment rooms is significant of the increase of temperance habits among the people. For a stay of three or four days, as at Oxford, Cambridge, and here, we have without difficulty procured cleanly and comfortable lodgings for a very moderate charge. One cannot but admire the self-respect and decency of these English lodging-house keepers. The results of their incessant striving are delightful; but it may be they are attained at almost too great wear and tear of body and mind. They look more anxious and worn and old, according to their years, than those of the same class with us. Life must be one long toil. Have we a right to expect such results at such a cost? Is there not something in the plan of life of the Italians and French, and even of many of our people, more in accordance with reason and nature? Take our landlady here. We were never in a more exquisitely clean little house. She is at all times correspondingly neat in person. The kitchen is like a parlor. The fuchsias and geraniums in the windows would do credit to many a greenhouse. The little garden is full of lovely flowers. The husband is a journeyman shoemaker. He cleans the boots and trims the lamps. Beyond this, she appears to do all the work. This Sunday morning she was on her knees washing out the flagway in front before breakfast. Her three little girls have just passed out to Sunday-school as fresh-looking and prettily dressed as need be. There is another lodger. During winter, she tells us, when there are no tourists, she takes in plain sewing.

Not alone in railways and hotels, but in many extras, is travelling cheaper here. Much wear and tear and annoyance is avoided, in that you can generally ascertain the full cost of everything beforehand. Our experiences upon this tour confirm us in the conviction that the English are, mainly from their past history and present circumstances, a more open and confiding people than we are.

These considerations forced themselves upon me as I sat down intending to give some of my impressions regarding a few of the less generally visited, and yet deeply interesting, localities in England. Such I must now reserve for a future occasion. The scenery of this lake district surprises and delights us. It is more like Switzerland than any place we have ever seen out of Switzerland. True, there are not snow-peaks or glaciers; but how many of the most crowded resorts in Switzerland are out of sight thereof. Scenery depends more upon the balance and proportion of its component parts than upon actual measurement, and such balanced proportion is here in a high degree. D. B.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF AGRICULTURE AND GENERAL INSECTOLOGY.

PARIS, September 8, 1887.

WHILE the time-honored orange trees of the garden of the Tuileries are still left out to profit by the autumn sun, their house, situated on the terrace bordered by the Seine, has been loaned to the Society of Agriculture and Insectology for the purpose of an exhibition of insects hurtful and useful to natural products. This is the seventh exhibition since the organization of the Society. Four years have elapsed since the last one took place in one of the obscure rooms of the Palais de l'Industrie, which attracted little notice and few visitors. Great improvement is remarked this year in the interest of the public as well as in the attendance. This is due to other causes than the more agreeable site of the exhibition. Firstly, the exhibits are much more complete, which is partly owing to the increasing zeal of certain country schoolmasters, who of late years have shown themselves desirous of becoming savants, and who have contributed largely to the most interesting specimens of the exhibition. Then the public has become more interested, and begins to understand that insectology does not mean a collection of *bugs* with high-sounding names without appropriateness.

A striking feature of this exhibition, and the *point de mire* of every visitor, is certain collections accompanied by voluminous copybooks in which all the families of insects exhibited are duly classed and registered; and as these copybooks are the result of the researches of very young school children, they produce a profound impression and arrest respectful attention. Some of these collections—according to a distinguished naturalist with whom I talked—are far above the learned amateur, and deserve a word of homage from the gravest savant. The patient schoolmaster who imparts to his pupils, mostly destined to become farmers, the practical knowledge of natural history by the interesting method of illustrating thus their own researches, deserves the rank of a naturalist along with the great ones. It is pleasant to remark the appreciation of these faithful men by the French Government. To reward and encourage teachers showing a disposition for agriculture, the department to which they belong will send them, free of expense, for a year to an agricultural school or a training-farm before being placed in charge of the country class they are to direct. It is easy to see what services they will be able to render in agricultural districts in primary teaching.

But to return to the collections displayed under the name of teacher and school: those of the schools of Toury and St.-Cyr-sous-Dourdan, and that of the pupils of M. Cazet from the Côte-d'Or, are really above par. The classification adopted by the latter is the double division of "useful" and "destructive," which, if a variation of the order followed in natural history, is a very harmless one, and helps the not over-learned visitor to understand more readily the contents of the glass cases thus labelled. It will please him to be able to comprehend at a single glance those insects destructive or protective of man's hopes. Thus he will see that the family of *Carabides* are labelled "useful" because they feed on caterpillars, larvæ, and slugs; while with another glance at the cases labelled "destructive," he will recognize the *Sylpha obscura*, enemy of beet-roots, the *Sitophilus cossonus*, the damager of wheat, or the *Zabrus gibbus*, that dwells in the marrow of the stem of wheat.

I must say that in a great measure it seems to have been a point of endeavor with the collectors to present the insects in what might be called a picturesque and illustrative scene. Such is the collection of M. Fallou, who shows pieces of natural wood on which, or in which, the destroying insects are at work. The inroads of the larvæ of the *Cossus* on the poplar, the tunnels of the *Cerambyx Cerdo* in the cherry tree, and the scars of the *Cryptorhyndus Lapathi* in the oak, are vivid reminders of what can arrest the flourishing growth of trees. One forgets to be grateful to the woodpecker who, when accomplishing his mission of preservation, augments the damage with the augur-like hole he bores in the tree. In that same department, however, I noticed a very simple and efficient remedy to rescue a tree, promising to be valuable either for timber or fruit, when attacked by those insects. A small wad of cotton steeped in unclarified benzoin is forced, with the aid of a small wire, into the hole, which is stopped with a cap of cement to prevent contact with air.

The Savard collection attracts great attention on account of that picturesqueness of presentation to which I have alluded. Only it has the fault of not illustrating direct utility: too many of the specimens are borrowed from Asia and Africa. So the useful galls productive of dyes are not quite what would greatly enrich the knowledge of the young French cultivator. This leads us to mention as a typical and unique work the collection of M. Daguin, which, under the label of his Department, Haute-Marne, is a perfect monument of the fauna of this district. Every specimen has been his own capture, and, heedless of the numerous curiosities he often met in neighboring districts, he resisted adding them to this collection, which is a perfect guide-book for the agriculturist who operates in this Department. All are there—coleoptera, lepidoptera, othoptera, hemiptera—besides molluscs. This collection bears an uncommonly scientific aspect, not only from its exclusiveness, but because there is a catalogue adjoined which gives, independently of the Latin or dictionary names, the vulgar appellation of the insects—an appellation as indispensable to make the insects recognizable to the countryman as the notes indicative of habits.

There are other collections seeming more important—that of M. J. H. Menier, for instance; but I doubt if they impress the connoisseurs with such respect as the one from the Haute-Marne. Dr. Trouessart, a well-known correspondent of American scientific papers, sends a modest glass case, flanked by two ponderous portfolios of text, to initiate the real gourmet into that as yet so little observed and so little talked of variety of Acarus called the *Sarcoptidæ*, the parasite of fowls.

I may safely say that admiration is complete in the chapter of silk-worms. This may be a little unfair, as many of them are alive and at work, and for that reason excite more interest. Those in glass cases, in every grade of transition and of every variety of family, by the side of their spoils, form a museum next to which even the lively bees have no chance.

Of these much has been said in *conférences* which take place every other day in a private room next to the exhibition hall. These lectures are the complement, or indispensable embroidery, of what one sees. The next topics announced are the cockchafer, the classification of insects according to the unexplained law of Linnæus, and

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the phylloxera! I had the good luck, on the day of my visit to the exhibition, to be present at an altercation—if I may use that word—which shows how far one may still be from certitude in the means of combating this formidable foe, and how irascible those sternly interested in the subject may become when suspecting that a rival is closer to the real remedy. Let the reader draw his own conclusion. I will simply ask leave to call his attention to one of the tables in the exhibition, which, instead of supporting glass cases, is ornamented with three pairs of very fine china vases filled with strawberry leaves. On close inspection the strawberry leaves bear the stains indicative of the phylloxera. I had just stopped to consider the tainted foliage when a gentleman near me remarked: "Ah, the phylloxera!" "Yes, sir," promptly answered an elderly lady who was sitting near, "the phylloxera on the ananas strawberry, where the trombidium dwells ready to kill it." The gentleman looked somewhat astonished. "The trombidium is his natural foe. Each *puceron* has its parasite; the trombidium is that of the phylloxera." "But, madame," said very calmly the gentleman," it is recognized that the phylloxera is also eaten by the *Tyrophylus phylloxeræ*, which Dr. Charles Riley, the American entomologist, discovered and gave specimens of to M. Planchon to experiment with on French vineyards afflicted with phylloxera. This was in 1873. You know with what results." The lady very authoritatively answered that the tyrophylus was an acarus and the trombidium an arachnid. She pointed to the small diagram of the trombidium, which clearly outlined a spider. After this the gentleman had but to ask what relation there might exist between the trombidium which inhabits the strawberry and the phylloxera which dwells on the root of the vine.

I will repeat the theory of Mme. de Bompar, which is beginning to receive more attention. In 1852, after the declaration of free trade, the farmers transformed their culture and planted vines. Belonging to a vine-growing district, Mme. de Bompar noticed that vineyards where the strawberry was planted with the vine did not suffer from phylloxera. From the remotest antiquity, strawberry intermixed with the vine is recorded; but in those districts which changed their mode of culture, they omitted to plant the strawberry, and in due time all were attacked. She strengthened her observation by canvassing numerous municipalities, writing letters to the mayors, who invariably replied that where the strawberry was planted phylloxera was unknown. Further, she saw that in Corsica, Italy, and parts of Switzerland, where strawberries grew with the vines (or even in neighboring fields), there was no phylloxera. But it was not until 1879 that she discovered the trombidium on a strawberry leaf, and in 1882 the winged phylloxera on the strawberry leaf also. Previously to this, she had placed two or three trombidiums on a vine root severely attacked by phylloxera, but her microscope was not of sufficient force to allow her to watch satisfactorily the result. Under a more powerful lens, she discovered that the trombidium is wonderfully efficient in killing the phylloxera—ten-fold swifter than the tyrophylus of Dr. Riley, since it does not eat, but sucks the coloring matter of the *puceron*. Experiment proves that in twenty seconds he pierces fifty phylloxera!

The gentleman asked, with despairing civility, if the lady was well acquainted with the habits of the phylloxera. "Enough to state that the ananas strawberry rids the vine of its presence," she answered, "in this way: The strawberry harbors the trombidium, which weaves its meshes on the fuzzy side of the leaf. The phylloxera, when full grown, prefers this tender leafage to the grapevine, and in autumn ascends the strawberry to deposit the winter egg. The trombidium sucks his coloring matter, and thereby kills it. As for those larvæ which have escaped the enemy and descended to the roots of the vine, they are pursued under ground by the trombidium in June, July, and August, as he seeks them for food. In September the phylloxera, full grown, reascends on the new leaves of the strawberry, and about the same time the trombidium reappears also. Thus vine and strawberry have the same *puceron*, and it is on the leaf of the strawberry that nature has taught him to deposit his egg, and not on the stem of the vine."

This theory widened the gulf between the two searchers. The gentleman, who advocated the Algerian remedy—that of drenching with poison a plant when a prey to phylloxera—was not to be convinced that the enemy was first to be attacked above ground, especially by an agent that has no relation with chemistry. Words of incredulity on one side were combated with very earnest belief in the laws of elimination; and the lady, disdaining to bring forth other arguments, concluded: "Ah! I see what you are: you are an inventor."

By the way, it is noticeable that few inventors exhibit at the Exposition means of combating destructive insects. A number of successful experiments, dating from 1887, are advertised by the Compagnie Phylloxérique Française. A chemist of Versailles shows how sulphide of carbon can be dosed and distributed in the ground, without loss or danger in manipulation, through the medium of capsules weighing five, ten, or twenty-five grammes. For horticulture and greenhouses, a liquid, of which ten centilitres are put in a litre of water, sprinkled over the plants with an atomizer, is an easy and cheap remedy against hurtful insects. For fruit trees, a preparation to be applied with a brush rids them of the *lanigère*, so destructive, especially to the apple tree. Besides these, a fertilizer, with a basis of mineral tar, which has been applied in a public garden at Marseilles at the rate of two kilogrammes per square yard, has renovated lawns, shrubbery, and flower-beds which for years had been abandoned to the moles. And, lastly, a preparation christened Bromine, hitherto experimented with in market gardening, is, in a new form, to be applied to agriculture. This will be profitably combined with superphosphates without much increasing the price.

In the midst of the scientific investigations of man, we recall what the poet Lamartine said, that "an insect is worth a world." Let those who seek the remedy for evil remember this. Research has proved that in every country each species has the same duties—*similia cum similibus officiis*. Then, does it not seem that the smallest agent—if brought again where nature willed it—would soon restore those disorganized laws of equilibrium that have for years baffled man's calculations? L.

Correspondence.

THE TARIFF ON BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The sentiments expressed by your correspondent with regard to the tariff on foreign books of a learned character will meet with the hearty approval of all scholars, as well as of those anxious for the advancement of scholarship in this country. It is a well-known fact that learning can only flourish where learning is encouraged. In Europe it is the governments that uphold the great institutions of learning. With us, what encouragement has been given to science and art has come almost exclusively from private sources, while the Government has put an obstacle in the way which is more serious than may appear on the surface, by taxing unduly those who choose to devote themselves to pursuits which, from a material point of view, are most unprofitable.

Let me give an illustration to show how unjust it is, besides, to tax imported books according to the *purchasing* price. Some months ago I received from Germany a book of 118 pages, on which I had to pay a duty of $1.75. The book was printed, for the greater part, in plain Latin characters, and the only unusual feature about it was that it was quite liberally interspersed with cuneiform (and some Hebrew) characters, which could not, however, have added very materially to the expense of printing. Ordinarily, such a book would be published in Germany at a cost of $1.50, but this book could not be purchased for less than $7. Why? Simply because the sale of the book was necessarily a very limited one, and the publisher was obliged to cover his expenses with, say, seventy-five or a hundred copies. But is that a sufficient reason for the Government to make me a double sufferer, except on the principle that a greater folly deserves a still greater punishment?

In conclusion, permit me to make a practical suggestion. The Association for the Advancement of Science, at its recent meeting in New York, passed a resolution in favor of memorializing Congress on the very same subject brought forward by your correspondent. Would it not be timely for other literary and scientific bodies to endorse officially the action of the A. A. A. S., and thus strengthen a cause which can only be won by united action?—Very respectfully,

Morris Jastrow, Jr.

University of Pennsylvania, October 2, 1887.

THE NATIONAL BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the fate of the national banks, a feasible plan has occurred to me for continuing them with something of the security they at present enjoy. The method was suggested to me last winter by a study of the old State banks, in connection with our present system, but I did not feel confident of its merits. This summer I casually mentioned it to two bankers, who were impressed with its possibilities, and I venture to reproduce it here for consideration and criticism, hoping that some one may find it worthy either of approval or of condemnation.

The method was suggested by the "New York system," as it is generally known, and which has some claim to the parentage of the national banks. That system required a deposit of bonds, stocks, etc., to secure the redemption of the paper issued. But it is notorious that this arrangement was almost as bad a failure as the one it supplanted, although designed to correct or prevent the evil so successfully overcome by the present system. The national debt will not much longer allow the extension, and its liquidation will prevent the continuance, of the national banks, so that in a near future we must face the problem of reorganizing the banking system of the country in some way to preserve the admirable efficiency of the present system and the stability of the currency. When the national debt can no longer be depended upon for security, we suggest the old "New York system," but with three important modifications, which are designed to remove the defects incident to its former application. They are:

(1.) The limitation of its control to the Federal Government.

(2.) Redemption and issue at specified periods, according to the changes in the market value of the securities on deposit. Redemption must be compulsory in case of a decline in values, but

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new emissions may be left to the pleasure of the bank, although carefully regulated by law.

(3.) In cases of insolvency, advanced redemption by the United States Treasury, and sale of securities under circumstances which will prevent loss by decline in their value.

The first of these conditions needs no comment. As to the second, I have not seen anywhere that the old "New York system" made any provisions against the contingency of loss by a fall in the value of the security. The condition requiring at least a portion of the issue to be redeemed at special periods, if the value of the securities has declined, will keep the issue within the limits of the value of the deposit, and loss may be as successfully prevented as at present. In the third case, when insolvency occurs, the advanced redemption by the Treasury, with a loan from itself, will prevent that decline in the value of the securities which is incidental to a sudden and enforced sale.

You, Mr. Editor, may be able to discover defects in the method above proposed, and, if so, I hope they will be pointed out. It is, perhaps, anticipating a discussion of the problem to mention it at the present time; but the favorable reception given the method by the two bankers referred to is the apology for bringing it into wider notice. Carlyle somewhere remarks that a man's opinion gains infinitely when he gets some one to agree with him; so I wish to know whether I can have a vote of confidence or not.

J. H. HYSLOP.

NEW YORK CITY, September 26, 1887.

[The question here raised is mainly this: Will the United States assume the duty of selecting, buying, and selling the stocks or bonds that are to take the place of its own bonds as security for the circulating notes of the national banks, and will the United States, having such securities in its hands, then guarantee the notes? It is safe to say that the public will never agree to any national system that does not include a Government guarantee of everything circulating as money. There is room for considerable differences of opinion when it is proposed to make Treasury officers the umpires between different classes of securities offered for sale in the market. The opportunities for favoritism (for one thing) would be enormous. But as the question is not now exactly a pressing one, we do not examine it at all points.—ED. NATION.]

INFANT DESIGN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You were kind enough last year to call attention to an article of mine on Art in the Nursery, printed in *Babyhood*. I purpose making a serious and somewhat elaborate study into this subject, with reference to the philosophy of art development, and shall be glad if parents or guardians, having charge of children below five years of age who may show a tendency to the use of the pencil, will send me any drawings by their charges, accompanied by notes of age, sex, occupation of parents, if any, and what cases of artistic activity may have occurred in their ancestry. Only the entirely spontaneous efforts of the little ones will be of any use to me, and any form of instruction by elder persons will vitiate the conclusions I might draw from the work. As the object is not to discover the presence of great artistic promise, but to study the growth of baby observation and communication of concrete ideas, the work of children old enough to have been influenced by the art work of their adult friends will be useless to me.

Any such drawings may be sent to me in care of the *Nation* within the next six months, and will be gratefully received. It is not of importance that they should be remarkable in any sense as art, but simply the unstimulated result of child thought; in some cases the rudest may be of the greatest value to me.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

LAMENNAIS VS. McGLYNN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although I am not a member of the Anti-Poverty Society, yet I am a well-wisher of it. I am a well-wisher of it because I hope to benefit by the triumph of its principles. I have read, and tried to make my own, the theories of George and McGlynn, but I find that I cannot accept them. I find my objections to the Anti-Poverty theories best expressed in the language of Lamennais:

"The Son of Man became poor in order to teach you how to support poverty.

"It is not that poverty comes from God, but it is a consequence of the corruption and evil lusts of men; and therefore will there always be some poor.

"Poverty is the daughter of sin, whose germ is in every man; and of servitude, whose germ is in every society.

"There will always be some poor, because man will never destroy the sin that is within him.

"There will always be less poor, because little by little servitude will disappear from society.

"Do you desire to labor to destroy poverty? Then labor to destroy sin, first in yourself, then in others, and thus servitude in society.

"It is not by taking that which is another's that poverty can be destroyed; for how, by making some poor, will the number of the poor be lessened?

"Each has the right to preserve that which he has, without which no one would longer be able to possess anything.

"But each has the right to acquire by his labor that which he has not, and without which poverty would be eternal." Y.

A CONTRAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The return of the battle flag of the Sixteenth Connecticut Volunteers by Col. Thomas G. Jones recalls to my mind an incident which occurred at a soldiers' reunion at Marietta, Ohio, some years ago. Col. Jones was present, and was called upon by the crowd for a speech. He came forward, and in a few moments' talk expressed his sincerity in entering the Confederate service, his thorough acquiescence in the results of the war, and his love for the reunited country and for his former antagonists, in such a straightforward, manly way as to win the hearty applause of almost the entire audience.

Soon after, a man who had been an officer in the Northern Army, but whose name and rank I cannot now remember, was called for and made a speech even more conspicuous for sectionalism and bitterness than that of Col. Jones's for its patriotism and brotherly love. The way in which the two speeches were received showed plainly that the sympathy of the audience was with Col. Jones and the Union.

If partisan prejudice could be eliminated, there is not much doubt that patriotism would be generally recognized, from whatever source it came, and that disloyalty to a genuine Union of sentiment would be severely condemned, even in men who fought to preserve legal Union.

W. H. J.

OCTOBER 1, 1887.

THE SCIENTIFIC REVIVAL IN THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever else may be the signs of improvement in the South, there is a certain progress now going on in the direction of teaching the natural sciences in the colleges that bids fair to do more for the true intellectual advancement which must accompany the industrial than any other factor.

In several of the States the question of elementary physiology and hygiene in the public schools has come before the Legislature this year, and, though generally decided adversely, opinion in its favor is growing, and it is a most active leaven. In the colleges there is a great advancement, and technical studies and natural history may be said to be enjoying a "boom." The University of North Carolina has a small but modern natural-history department. The University of Tennessee is also waking up in this respect. The Mississippi State Agricultural College is exceptionally modern, and the Arkansas State Industrial University has recently added a competent naturalist to its faculty. Tulane University of New Orleans is also paying attention to biologic studies. The most interesting struggle, however, is in Texas, where, owing to an inexplicable tangle, we have the spectacle of the most progressive university in the South handicapped by the most unreasonable embarrassments—the rivalry of another State institution and many sectarian colleges. But there is no room to doubt that in a few years the struggle will end in the University being unfettered, and becoming a centre from which will radiate much intelligent thought.

One great obstacle to biologic teaching in the South—opposition to the importation of teachers from the North—is being in part obviated by the fact that young Southerners are beginning to be found who have been abroad or North; and for all these who are fitted good places are made. But there is room for hundreds more than those who now go beyond their narrow environment for educational advantages.

Several of the Southern States are endeavoring to secure scientific investigation of their resources and natural possibilities, and it can be said to the credit of Arkansas, generally reputed to be one of the most backward of the group, that she has spontaneously established a geological survey, and that her Governor has had the courage, despite opposition, to appoint non-residents of education and ability to the positions, rather than the clamorous local knights of the divining rod. It may be said that nearly all the appointees were Southern young men who have sought a foreign education and obtained prominence in their profession in other regions.

I believe this scientific revival will be the salvation of the South, and have much hopes for its future. R. T. H.

ARKADELPHIA, ARK., September 23, 1887.

THE SHAME OF IT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To one who has had an opportunity to watch the men who participated in the late reunion of the Grand Army in this city, nothing is more remarkable than the sober, self-reliant dignity of their countenances, unless it be the unanimity with which these same sturdy veterans voted for the Pauper Pension Bill. Presumptively, these men represented the best element of American life. They fought for the preservation of the Union at every sacrifice of personal interest, and, after finishing the great work, resumed their former pursuits, apparently content with the glory of having saved the country. The disinterested zeal which then inspired them seems still to inspire them. No one can doubt this who has watched the long line of proud men who defiled through the muddy streets of St. Louis in a pouring rain, hoarsely singing the old tunes which commemorate their victories.

These same men crowded into a hall decorated

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with the flags of the Union, and, without a dissenting voice, voted to ask the Government for $12 a month for every man who served in the war, now or hereafter unfit for labor, whether or not the incapacity is due to his improvidence or even vice. Such rapacity, in such a body, is without example in the history of the country, and is another proof of the widespread demoralization which has succeeded the war. It is unpleasant to recall the eagerness with which Southern members of Congress caballed to secure appropriations from the general Government for unimprovable "water-ways," after having fought for State sovereignty and State responsibility, or to recall the unanimity with which certain Southern States are now seeking aid from the same source for their public schools; but surely the fact which an American will hereafter recall with greatest shame is the recent action of the Grand Army of the Republic.

PRO PATRIA.

ST. LOUIS, October 1, 1887.

IN THE SADDLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for August 4 was a very readable article entitled "Holiday Equestrians," in which some good points are made by the writer that every rider will appreciate. Permit me, however, to take exception to some of the statements made by the writer of this article, who is evidently accustomed to the saddle.

In the first place, in speaking of the difference between the seat of the cow-boy and that of the Cossack or Turcoman, he says, "All three are superb riders." There is perhaps no more common error concerning the West than the popular idea that the cow-boy is a good rider. I know nothing of the Asiatic seat, but many years among the cow-boys have long since proved to me that they are far from being "superb" riders, or even good riders in the proper acceptation of that term. Of course, among them you do find good riders, and in such a party as Buffalo Bill's combination there are riders who are very expert. But even among these I think a close observer will discover that the success of the rider is due as much to the merits of the horse as to those of the rider. There is not, perhaps, in this State a mining camp or prairie town which could not produce better riders than you will find on any of the ranges between the Rio Grande and the Platte.

And again, in speaking of riding in an English saddle, the writer properly says that the principle of "rising" in the trot is to relieve the horse; but he adds, "He keeps his weight steady on the horse by throwing it into his stirrups." Every "park rider" accustomed to an English saddle will agree with me, I think, in saying that *as little weight as possible should be thrown into the stirrups.* With the stirrups of a proper length, the feet well thrust in, and the knees clamped tight against the sides of the "pig-skin," the rider rises, naturally and easy, not from the stirrup, but from the knee. The horse is thus relieved from all weight, as it is distributed down the sides; and the rider secures a firmness of seat which he can get in no other way. The knee is the pivotal point; and the knee-grasp is the great desideratum in a seat on the "pig-skin."

HORACE VAN TRUMP.

DENVER, COL., September 27, 1887.

DEN AND BOUDOIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just received your paper of August 11, in which "M. N. S." asks that "equal rights" be accorded to men in the furnishing of the parlor, assuming that, with the disappearance of ribbons and meaningless knick-knacks, the to her obnoxious "den" will also vanish. Do away with the frippery with all my heart; have "the large table with its corner for newspapers, without which many a man's happiness is wrecked," the inkstand and dictionary within arm's reach—but will these round out the sum of his happiness? And, when spittoon and pipe are added, what becomes of "equal rights" for the feminine portion of the household? They must learn to endure the puffs of smoke coming from the other side of the table; with all the resources of housewifery must wage a daily, losing war against its stale odors, which cling to curtains and walls, go abroad with them in the folds of their gowns, are sent to friends in the paper on which they write; they must accept the disorderly ashes, the offensive spittoon.

An Englishman only smokes in the rooms appropriated to his use, but the American man has too long been in the habit of smoking all over the house; and the heroine of former times "retired into her boudoir," I suppose, because there only could she breathe a pure air. Is it not a distinct advance in civilization when the hero now "retreats into his den" to enjoy his fragrant weed, and afterwards rejoins his family in the neutral region of a smokeless atmosphere? As I write, my chamber is full of the odor of tobacco, creeping round the edges of a locked door, on the other side of which is the bedroom of a young American couple. Would not "equal rights" give that wife—and me—an untainted atmosphere to sleep in, and the "den" be a means to that end?

So long as man is constituted as he is, sister-woman must endure the distasteful tobacco when there is but one living room in the house; but, so soon as there are others than the parlor, gentle breeding demands that one of them shall be the "den," whose *raison d'être*, as I take it, lies not in the frivolous furnishing of the present day, but in the growing amenity of family life. Therefore, while in our homes fancy work wanes, may dens remain and multiply; but could not men invent some other nomenclature for their especial sanctum than one which suggests the wild beast and all savagery? I. C. N.

ST. MORITZ, SWITZERLAND, September 17, 1887.

RELIGIOUS DOCUMENTS FOR THE CONTINENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Absence from home kept me from seeing your journal of the 11th ult. before to-day. It was a pleasing surprise that the extract from my letter should have been thought worth forwarding to you for publication. It was also a proof of the interest the matter has for thoughtful Americans.

Only those who have lived on the Continent can realize the lack of information there touching religion in America. The unusual complications of social and religious conditions in the United States, and the multitude of churches of commanding interest, make the knowledge of and the acquisition of the literature and statistics peculiarly difficult. This difficulty would be permanently relieved if every religious body, besides sending to the University Library at Leipzig the documents already in print, would forward regularly its reports of all kinds as they appear. With thanks for your aid, I am your obedient servant, CASPAR RENÉ GREGORY.

LEIPZIG, LIEBIGSTRASSE 9, IV. I,
September 12, 1887.

Notes.

THE Rev. W. E. Griffis's 'Life of Commodore Matthew Calbraith Perry' will be issued directly by Cupples & Hurd, Boston.

Mr. William Cushing's supplement to his 'Initials and Pseudonyms' will go to press this fall. Subscriptions may be sent to the compiler at 18 Wendell Street, Cambridge, Mass.

Subscriptions for the 'Poems of Frank Forester (Henry William Herbert)' may be sent to Mr. Morgan Herbert, who edits the work, in care of John Wiley & Sons, New York, or Trübner & Co., London. It will make a small quarto, will contain a sketch of the author's life, and will be illustrated from photographs and paintings. The "Prometheus" and "Agamemnon" will not be reprinted.

'Faint, Yet Pursuing, and Other Sermons,' by the author of 'How to be Happy though Married'; Dorner's 'System of Christian Ethics,' translated by Prof. Mead of Andover; Pünjer's 'History of the Christian Philosophy of Religion,' translated by W. Hastie; Prof. Sayce's Hibbert Lectures for 1887, on the 'Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religion of the Ancient Babylonians'; 'Pictures from Holland,' in the "Pen and Pencil Series"; and 'The Printed Book: its History, Illustration, and Adornment,' are among the latest announcements of Scribner & Welford.

Funk & Wagnalls will have ready in the course of a month a photographic facsimile of the first Shakspere folio. Oddly enough, they offer it as a convenient test of the Donnelly-Bacon lunacy.

Thomas Whittaker republishes directly William Sharp's collection of English and American 'Sonnets of this Century,' and Samuel Waddington's 'Sonnets of Europe'—translations with notes.

The building of the great Central Asian Railroad by the Russians is related from official documents by Dr. O. Heyfelder in a work shortly to appear—'Transkaspien und seine Eisenbahn' (Hanover: Mierzinsky; New York: Christern). It will be amply illustrated. We may remark here that a preliminary report of an expedition sent by the Russian Government in 1886 to the Transcaspian region and North Khorasan is published in the August and September numbers of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. Its special aims, besides the study of the physical geography and geology of the country, were to examine the deposits of naphtha, salt, and sulphur, and to collect specimens of the fauna and flora. An admirable map of the region explored, including the line of the Transcaspian Railway, drawn from Government sources, accompanies the report.

Miss G. Mendum of Stapleton, N. Y., is engaged on a translation of Lamartine's 'Harmonies.'

A new edition of Count Leo Tolstoi's Caucasian sketch, 'The Cossacks' (William S. Gottsberger), comes to remind American admirers of the great Russian writer that it is to Mr. Eugene Schuyler that they were indebted for their first introduction, nine years ago, to the author whose name is now a household word in this country. The majority of readers will hardly agree with Turgeneff's estimate of the work, as the author's best, although it possesses, on a small scale, many of the qualities which distinguish his more complete works. It takes rank in importance after 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karenina,' and people who know Tolstoi only through the latter should read this book in its revised form as now issued.

Prof. Gneist's work on the English Parliament, lately reviewed by us (*Nation*, No. 1155), has appeared in "a fresh translation" by A. H. Keane,

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Vice-President of the Anthropological Institute. The former translation was so exceedingly bad that this new edition will be welcome to all students of the English Constitution. It is certainly very much improved—not so much so, however, as if Mr. Keane had not made the old translation the basis of his work, but had gone to work unembarrassed by it, and made a wholly independent version. A piece of really bad English is incapable of being made really good by any amount of revision, and had better be put at once in the fire. Two decided merits of the new edition are an index and the removal of the notes from the end of the chapter to the foot of the page. The style of the new book is somewhat more attractive than the old, although it is not really better printed. The Messrs. Putnam are the American agents.

Mr. John Ashton's mode of writing history with the aid of newspaper clippings and broadside and caricature art is well known and is uniformly employed in his numerous works—perhaps nowhere more satisfactorily than in his 'Dawn of the Nineteenth Century in England: a Social Sketch of the Times.' The political events of the first decade are dismissed in nineteen chapters, and what follows is a very interesting and curious presentation of the manners of the time, beginning with roads and transportation. The whole text is freely sprinkled with contemporaneous illustrations traced by Mr. Ashton's own hand. A popular edition of this work, in one volume, just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, promises it a new lease of life.

From J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, we have two more volumes in the pocket Thackeray, to which "Barry Lyndon" and "Lovel the Widower" furnish the titles, covering also other minor pieces. The same firm sends us the seven concluding volumes of the fine Library Edition of the Waverley Novels, making twenty-five in all. The last of these contains several features of much value and convenience—tables of the tales in alphabetic order, and again in the order of their internal chronology; a list of the characters introduced in each, with a synopsis of their leading incidents; an index to the names; another to the notes; and finally a glossary. This portion of the work merits separate publication.

Mrs. Lydia Hoyt Farmer has followed up her 'Boys' Book of Famous Rulers' with the 'Girls' Book of Famous Queens' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). That she has found encouragement to do this is sufficient evidence that the earlier work gained acceptance with the class for whom it was designed. She tells a story, indeed, with much animation of style, and conveys a good amount of historical information in an agreeable way. There is, however, a lack of discrimination in her moral judgments, and an utter absence of the critical faculty. The reader of the book will probably get the impression that Semiramis and Dido are as real historical personages as Mary Queen of Scots and the Empress Eugénie. The illustrations, which are numerous, are execrable.

From the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* in this city issues for the fifteenth time the bulkiest and cheapest book published in America, 'The Publishers' Trade List Annual' for 1887. Every bookseller knows its indispensableness, as does every head of a literary department or newspaper, and not a few readers in our public libraries who have access to it. The various firm catalogues here bound together alphabetically do not, as time goes on, show any tendency towards uniformity except in size.

An address entitled "A Legal Mummy; or, the Present Status of the Dartmouth College Case," delivered before the Vermont Bar Association by its President, Mr. Aldace F. Walker of Rutland, Vermont, in October, 1885, has been reprinted (Montpelier, Vt.). The title is not entirely colorless; it intimates the lack of satisfaction that the writer entertains with the great case referred to. There is a good deal of sense and vigor of thought in the pamphlet, and it is worthy the attention of the student of constitutional law.

Those who remember Prof. Langdell's very striking address at the dinner of the Harvard Law School Association last November, in which he enforced the view that our law should be taught after the methods prevailing on the continent of Europe, and that in this respect "we should not longer follow in the footsteps of England, but should bring ourselves into harmony with the rest of the civilized world," will be interested in reading a short article on the English modes of teaching law, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for August 15 last. The writer, George Blondel, "Chargé de cours à la Faculté de droit de Lyon," is giving some account of a recent address at Berlin, by P. F. Aschrott, a German magistrate and Doctor of Jurisprudence and Philosophy, before the Société Juridique, in which he finds several points in the English methods that are worthy of consideration in Germany. It seems that they suffer in Germany from pedantry, dulness, a lack of the "aptitude pédagogique," and from "ignorance de la pratique." These are the natural defects of the Continental system, and it may be that Germany has something to learn from England; but it is very certain that England has much more to learn, as regards the teaching of law, from Germany. The writer of the article referred to (and, as it would seem, M. Aschrott also) appears to be ignorant of the notable advances and reforms lately made in teaching law at the English universities.

We commend to those interested Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart's paper on the teaching of history in high and preparatory schools in the Syracuse *Academy* for October. It is both a discussion and a bibliographic index.

The summer numbers of the *Antiquary*—for July, August, and September—must be passed over with a very summary examination. The first article that strikes the reader is a continued one, opening the July number and running through the other two, by Prof. Hodgetts, entitled "The Smith and the Wright." These two words, of diverse etymology but similar meaning, are examined, and a history given of the various mechanic arts included in their definition. The writer is an ardent eulogist of everything Germanic, and seems to us to exaggerate the independent skill of his early countrymen. Nevertheless, the articles contain much curious and interesting matter. It is to be wished that the passage in Tacitus were cited which "speaks of a delicately executed kind of ribbed tile of a semi-cylindrical form made by the northern Germans, which possessed a beauty of color and a brilliancy that no Roman tile could present." Another continued paper, in three numbers, is "On Some Garters King-at-Arms," by John Alt Porter, consisting mostly of short biographical notices. Mr. Round's article, "The Early Custody of Domesday Book," begun in the June number, is continued in July, with the conclusion that, "during at least the first century of its existence, the official resting place of Domesday Book was within the walls of Winchester Castle." "Notes on Incidents in Folk-tales," in the August and September numbers, contain many interesting details and discussion. Of the single articles, perhaps the most valuable are that upon "John Hodgson, the Antiquarian" (July), "A Visit to Mount Athos" (September), and "Bone Caves," by H. P. Malet, in the same number. This last, to be continued, undertakes, from the writer's own observations in India, to disprove the theory that the animals whose bones are found in caves were dragged thither by hyenas. "Whatever ancient beasts did, the modern hyena always dines where he finds his food, never dirties his den, and never dies there, except by accident."

L'Intermédiaire, the French *Notes and Queries*, for September 10th prints extracts from a brochure by M. Henry Mosnier on the "Château de Chavaniac-Lafayette," showing the amount of money expended by the Marquis de Lafayette during our war of the Revolution. The figures are taken from the papers of his intendant. His income during the years 1777–1783 was 50,000 livres annually, all of which he spent. But in addition he raised, both by loans and by selling portions of his estate, 741,000 livres, making a total of over a million of livres, the greater part of which was devoted to the support of the war.

A special number of the *Illustrazione Italiana* is wholly given up to the late universal competition for a new façade to the cathedral at Milan. Sixteen elevations are reproduced on a large scale, besides the existing front. Numerous plans and subordinate elevations also, with the letterpress, eke out a very complete conspectus of the problem, and of its attempted solution, both now and formerly.

In the eleventh part of the supplemental volume of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' there is an interesting chart, showing by different colors and shading the extent of the cultivation of the principal plants and grains throughout the world. Wheat, of course, leads the other food plants, but rye, barley, and oats do not fall far behind. Next to these, apparently, comes rice. It is surprising to note how small the wheat-fields of the United States appear compared with those of Europe and Asia, as well as the very wide extent of the cultivation of cotton.

The Parisian publisher, M. Édouard Rouveyre, having made a hit last year with M. Octave Uzanne's brightly written and admirably illustrated essay on modern bookbinding, has now sent forth 'La Reliure de Luxe,' by M. L. Derôme (New York: F. W. Christern), in the same form as M. Uzanne's 'Reliure Moderne,' with the same cover, and with abundant illustrations, most of which look as if they had been left over from the earlier and better book. M. Derôme's text has even less connection with the plates than had M. Uzanne's, and the plates are inferior in value and interest. The frontispiece is a vellum binding painted by M. J. Adeline—rather confused and muddy, and yet suggestive and promising as a specimen of a mode of decorative bindings likely to meet with increasing favor. The severe and monotonous, and yet dignified, bindings of plain morocco, tooled in parallel lines with broken corners in the style of Trautz-Bauzonnet, are perhaps the best things in the book. The influence of Japanese art is shown happily in one or two of the illustrations, where the rigidity of European design has been abandoned. A curious novelty is the binding of a pair of volumes together, one opening to the right, and the other to the left—but this is more curious than useful or beautiful. From these plates it is evident that the use of silk stuffs, brocades, etc., for book-covers is growing in France; and also that the Parisian binders have not yet availed themselves of the alligator, seal-skin, and snake-skin with which our binders have familiarized us.

— The *Atlantic* for October, with an abundance of other matter of interest which makes the number one of unusual excellence, has a singularly thorough criticism of Jean François Millet, called out by the recent exhibition of his works in Paris. One does not need to agree with the critic to recognize the all-round character of his view of Millet; nor, though one should acknow-

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ledge that his observations are just, need he therefore accept the critic's conclusions. The report is highly unfavorable to Millet's reputation. "Millet is not a great painter, worthy to be ranked with the great masters of the past; and even when we compare him with his contemporaries, Delacroix and Théodore Rousseau, he sinks to a modest level which it may be well not to attempt to qualify too precisely." This verdict is rendered on the score that the painter was in default on the artistic side, and on the theory that, in art, defects of this sort are eventually fatal to a claim to real greatness. Millet's character, it is said, was mainly "moral and literary," and so are his works; and it is "by the intentions, by the subjects, by the preachings" in his works that he succeeds with the public. He was "not only a peasant, but a Norman, and therefore half an Englishman—a serious and contemplative man, who read his Bible with the convictions of a millenarian of the time of Cromwell"; he is "a révolté"—a peasant who has made a cult of the contemplation of the fate of the peasant; a "sort of melancholy Burns." He leaves out the cheerfulness of the country life, all its festive side, and dwells only on its hardships; he is preaching always the lot of man, son of the earth; he is preoccupied with this, and though he is "a profound thinker" compared with Paul Potter or Cuyp, "a captivating dreamer" compared with Terburg and Metzu, "incontestably noble" compared with Jan Steen, Ostade, and Brouwer, yet he is "far inferior to one and and all of these" in "purely artistic qualities"; and the end falls—"not a great painter." Such a criticism is of the sort that inform and stimulate, and it is seldom that the artist when judging has so clear an eye for qualities "not artistic," and so much frankness in admitting their value; but the sentence passed is to be set down as a verdict of the schools, not of the disinterested mind—much more not that "intuitive judgment of the world" to which the critic alludes as "final." The schools have been so often mistaken; man, son of the earth, is so integral with the landscape for ever, that those to whom Millet is the artist of the true democratic spirit, in one of its purest and humblest as well as most enduring moods, need not yet despair of his being reckoned "a great painter." There is a note on Realism in the "Contributors' Club," for which we beg unusual attention.

—In the *Harper's*, Mr. Henry James has a lengthy and highly appreciative notice of the young portrait painter, John S. Sargent, who was born an American; but the national claim to him is modified by the facts that the places of his birth, his education, and residence are European, while his artistic quality, Mr. James says, is Parisian. He is given the praise of having attained the one great quality—style—and the future predicted for him is brilliant. The few illustrations of his work given, though wholly inadequate as a basis for such judgment as the text contains, are of use in bearing out the statement in which lies the kernel of Mr. James's praise, namely, that his portraits are also pictures. The republic of Costa Rica is treated after the thorough fashion which we recently commended in the case of the similar article on Chili, and we observe that the hope then expressed that there is to be a series of such papers on the Southern countries of this continent is to be realized. A second travel article describes the old Portuguese mission station, Bassein, in India. Of other articles not especially noticeable it will be well to single out Dr. Titus M. Coan's paper upon "The Curative Uses of Water," which contains a considerable amount of practical information on the functions of water in the body, and on the use of baths of different temperatures and their various effects, together with details of special value to those who seek water-cures. The writer remarks with truth enough that "an invalid who would not venture to prescribe a grain of quinine for himself, will placidly elect a bath-treatment, or even a whole course of mineral waters at a foreign spa, without the least qualm of doubt as to his own fitness for self-direction." The healthy man, as well as the invalid, will find the suggestions of the article relative to ordinary bathing well worth attending to. In the Easy-Chair Mr. Curtis has one of his best-touched papers on the subject—somewhat a matter of mere wonder to Americans—of "Buffalo Bill's" vogue in the last London season.

—*Scribner's* also has a leading art paper—one of those encyclopædic articles to which the magazines have now accustomed us—in this case, upon the Paris School of Fine Arts. Prof. Shaler continues his scientific papers, discussing in this issue the attractive subject of caverns. He calls attention to the value of observation of the character of life in these dark places as affording a great natural experiment to determine the influence of other elements than selection by survival in modifying the organisms, and thus supplementing and limiting the Darwinian theory of descent. Mr. Brownell contributes a criticism of the French in respect to the good sense which is their characteristic, and the absence of sentiment, broadly speaking, which is their defect. As in most generalizations there is much over-statement of the case proper. He thinks the old Romanized Gallic element in the nation more important than the Celtic ingredient, and attributes to it the fundamental moderation, temperance, and allied qualities in the people; he denies that they have the fanatic spirit, and he affirms that they hate excess. While this may be true in the main, we wish he had at least glanced at the apparent contradiction to all this in the revolutionary spirit which still retains something of noise and fury. In fact, it is by this revolutionary spirit, and not by the intellectual and literary regard for limits to be found in the French, that they have stood forth to the world at large and made "the fool-fury of the Seine" a byword among the English. Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, in an article which deals with the always timely matter of how to govern our cities, returns to his theory of personal responsibility as a main element in democracy, on the ground that the people can vote better for men than for measures. The paper deserves to be carefully read by those whom the subject concerns.

— An English correspondent writes us from Wadebridge, Cornwall, with reference to our remarks on the definition of *biscuit* in the 'New English Dictionary' (*Nation*, No. 1155, p. 138):

"The word *biscuit* always has been used here (locally) and probably throughout Cornwall in the sense in which you use it in the States, *i. e.*, the Webster-Worcester sense. Twenty or thirty years ago it was usually used in this sense, and hard crisp biscuits (except ship-biscuits, which were always called 'biscuits) were called 'hard biscuits.' In many families biscuit is still applied to both the soft and hard, but for the most part I notice it used now in the ordinary English sense; but it is still so much used for the soft sort that my wife (an Essex woman) when she came here could not understand what they meant when they used the word."

— The English Dialect Society shows, by its thirteenth report, that there is no lack of material either for collection or for publication. The folk-speech of South Cheshire, of certain localities in the West Riding of Yorkshire; a dictionary of the Kentish dialect; glossaries of Berkshire, Norfolk and Suffolk words, and, most interesting, perhaps, of all, a collection of sea words and phrases made by the late Edward Fitzgerald among the seafaring men of the Suffolk coast (revised by him upon the original contribution to *East Anglian Notes and Queries*)—such are some of the newest offerings to the Society. Prof. Skeat is now urgent that a fund be raised for the printing of an English Dialect Dictionary by the University of Cambridge — a worthy parallel and complement of the great enterprise of the sister university. He offers to give a hundredth part of the least sum of $25,000 for that purpose, and we should hope that his example might be followed, or bettered, in this country, where, indeed, there are many who could, with ease, bear the whole charge, with much glory. Accompanying this report is the second by Mr. Alexander J. Ellis, on his dialectal work from May, 1886, to May, 1887, which consists in mapping England according to the pronunciation of certain vowels and consonants, *e. g.*, in the case of the word *some*, the "sum" and the "sŏŏm" districts. To this report he adds a long bibliographic-historic calendar of his labors in early English pronunciation from 1848 to the present time, accounting for the apparent gaps with a list of intermediate excursuses, in mathematics and in music, which alone would be a monument to his enormous diligence.

—Two issues of the Society's series accompany the foregoing, bearing, as usual, the imprint of Trübner & Co. One is a most systematic exhibit of the range, meaning, pronunciation, and etymology of four dialect words, *clem*, *lake*, *nesh*, and *oss*, by Thomas Hallam. *Clem* means to perish of hunger, or to starve; and *starve* is compared with it in a separate section, in which Webster is cited as stating that the word is, in the literary usage of the United States, applied to death from hunger only, not from cold. This is true, but, in the dialectic usage here in the first quarter of the present century, "I'm 'most starved" could mean "I'm almost frozen." *Lake*, to play, is a variant of our word *lark* (frolic). *Nesh* (or *nash*), delicate, is probably still used among us over a wide area. *Oss* (or *ause*), to attempt, is an interesting derivative from the Latin *ausus* through the French *oser*. Mr. Hallam's conspectus is richly illustrated with literary quotations. An excellent piece of work, also, and good browsing-ground for the amateur, is the Rev. R. E. G. Cole's 'Glossary of the Words in Use in Southwest Lincolnshire.' *Nesh* alone, of the group just noticed, is found in it. Familiar to Yankee ears is *nation* (the oath-adverb of intensity), and to Southern, *peärt;* to journalistic, *newsy*. Southern, too, in our own association, is *naturally* in the sense of really, as in the negro "spiritual"—.

> "Let me tell you what is nat'rally de fac',
> Who is on de Lord's side," etc.

Heartslain (heart-broken) and *pine-house*, "a place where animals are shut up to fast the night before being killed," are distinctly poetic and pathetic; while for a rough metaphor commend us to *market-place*, "the front teeth: as, 'I'll knock your market-place down your throat.'" Of the verb *snickersneeze*, it is remarked: "A term without meaning, used to frighten children." But when, in Thackeray's ballad of "Little Billee," gorging Jack "pulled out his snickersnee," we have a very clear suggestion of a cut-throat knife. We observe, finally, the word *challenge*, "to claim acquaintance with," which we may compare with the use of the word by Pepys when his wife, on February 14, 1666, receiving a call from one Mr. Hill, was disappointed to find he had not come to be her Valentine, yet nevertheless bade him come up, and "challenged [*i. e.*, claimed] him." So we read in 'Gulliver': "— which was, therefore, a character we had no pretence to challenge [*i. e.*, lay claim to]."

—Tylor (in his 'Early History,' p. 45) says:

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"Shaking hands is not a custom which belongs naturally to all mankind. We may trace its introduction into countries where it was before unknown. The Fijians, who used to salute by smelling or sniffing at one another, learned to shake hands from the missionaries." Tylor is, however, in doubt whether the red Indians learned the hand-shaking custom from whites. His doubts would have been dispelled if he had read Col. Garrick Mallery's treatise on Dactylology in the first report of our Bureau of Ethnology. We there read (p. 385): "The practice of shaking hands was not until very recently used by Indians, and is even now seldom used by them among each other." It was clearly an importation. Col. Mallery, writing, no doubt, after unsavory experience, calls the practice in dealings with Indians "an annoying etiquette." He adds that this gesture is senseless, inconvenient, and, in the extent to which it prevails in the United States, a subject of ridicule by foreigners. In the hope of displacing the Yankee usage, he describes Japanese salutatory etiquette thus: "As acquaintances come in sight they approach with downcast eyes and averted faces, as if neither were worthy of beholding the other, and then they bow so low as to bring the face on a level with the knees, on which the palms of the hands are pressed." This procedure is not unlike the Egyptian as described by Herodotus (ii, 80). But the style of greeting which finds most favor with Col. Mallery is that in vogue among the Chinese, who shake each his own hands. When two polite Celestials meet, standing a few feet apart, each places the fingers of one of his hands over the other doubled up into a fist so that the thumbs meet, and then shakes his hands up and down in front of his breast. This kind of manipulation will show a higher conception of politeness than ours, in the view of all Presidents. The man who can give the Chinese fashion currency during the Presidential journey now in progress may be sure of the best office in the gift of Mr. Cleveland which the civil-service rules will allow him to bestow. Yet the truth is, that hand-shaking runs down its roots too deep for them to be easily extracted. It reminds of the right hand of fellowship which other apostles gave to Paul. It was already common in the Homeric era. When Ulysses and Diomed returned to the Grecian camp with the horses of Rhesus they had stolen, Nestor welcomed them back, not only with honeyed words, but, before that, "with his right hand," which means, say commentators, a shaking of hands. Not only is this physical contact a medium of sympathy and a gauge of character, it is felt to be an outward and visible sign and recognition of human equality.

A MODERN DIPLOMATIST.

St. Petersburg and London, 1852–1862. Reminiscences of Count Charles Frederick Vitzthum von Eckstedt. Translated by G. F. Taylor. 2 vols. London: Longmans. 1887.

THE author of these memoirs was for a number of eventful years Saxon Minister at the Court of St. James's. In this capacity he was in London during the Crimean war, the long campaigns which followed upon the outbreak of the Indian mutiny, through the entire process of the unification of Italy under one sovereign, our own civil war, and the Austro-Prussian campaign which terminated the existence of Saxony as an independent kingdom. His office brought him into close and constant relations with all the leading statesmen of the day in London, and a natural genius for society enabled him to turn his opportunities to the best account. The volumes before us consist chiefly of letters written from London during the period of his residence there, and reflect in a lively and not uninteresting fashion the shifting aspects of political opinion in the fashionable circles in which he moved. The Count dignifies this political gossip by calling it "la haute politique"; but "drawing-room politics" would be a more correct description of the contents of his book.

The society to which we are introduced is of the most august description. Kings, emperors, princes, ministers, and ambassadors jostle one another on every page; and talk, it must be acknowledged, in a manner which does eminent discredit to their foresight and discretion. The press is generally credited with the authorship of the many groundless panics which startle the world, and with fear of change perplex the stock exchanges. But if Count Vitzthum's revelations are authentic, this supposition must be given up as calumnious. Sovereigns, statesmen, and diplomatists are the exclusive manufacturers of their own panics. The "ethics of the political bandit" appears to be the accepted rule of conduct among them, and the consequence is that whenever a war breaks out anywhere, they at once leap to the conclusion that all governments will clutch at the opportunity to fish in troubled waters, and seize upon something which is not legitimately theirs. These predictions, happily for the peace and happiness of the world, are rarely verified, because the prophets take no account of the resistance offered by the nature of things. They regard the civilized world as held together by nothing possessed of greater resisting power than "the treaties of 1815," and certain fictions contained only in the books of jurisconsults, and described collectively as "international law." They make no account of the people and their wishes and interests. Arguing from these premises, we find that when the Emperor Louis Napoleon entered upon the campaign of Magenta and Solferino, Count Vitzthum, and all those "who were in a position to know," were absolutely convinced that, after driving Austria out of Lombardy, he would assail Germany on the Rhine, then annex Belgium, and ultimately revenge Waterloo by an invasion of Great Britain. The Count has no patience with the infatuation of the British people who, indifferent to the warnings of the professors of *la haute politique*, chose this critical time of all others to enter into a commercial treaty with France. The design of the Emperor in this transaction was, by a show of friendliness, to lull his intended victims to a sense of a false security; at the same time that, by the cheaper importation to France of British coal and iron, he would enjoy unlooked-for assistance towards completing his preparations for an invasion.

Neither to the Count nor to any of his sagacious friends in London did it occur that this vast scheme of universal aggression could not be carried through a single stage without entailing sacrifices upon the people of France which would drive them to offer a resolute opposition to its further development. The people of France counted for nothing in their vaticinations. They argued that whatever the first Napoleon might have dreamed in his most ambitious moments, his nephew would be able without difficulty to execute; that armies would spring up at a stamp of his foot, all properly organized and disciplined; that France would cheerfully endure any quantity of taxation, and so forth. Actually, as all the world knows, a month's campaign in Lombardy and two great battles so crippled the army of Napoleon that he had to patch up a peace in order to save France from invasion. It is Europe's misfortune to be governed by men so placed that they rarely, if ever, feel in their own persons the sufferings which the silliness of their *haute politique* inflicts upon others. It is barely possible for them to get nearer to the realities of things than a printed representation in an official report.

> "Half ignorant, they turn an easy wheel,
> Which sets sharp racks to work to pinch and peel."

How completely the author of these Memoirs has surrendered his mind to the belief that Europe and all that it inhabit is an artificial product put together by sovereigns and statesmen, is seen in his moral indignation at any breach, actual or threatened, of "the sanctity of treaties." He describes as "a piece of thoughtlessness" Lord Palmerston's ingenious device for relieving himself of the responsibility for the disastrous issue of the first invasion of Afghanistan. That war had been undertaken by the noble Lord in the teeth of the warnings of Sir Alexander Burnes, the British resident at Kabul. But Burnes having been killed, Lord Palmerston so doctored his despatches, before laying them on the table of the House of Commons, as to make them appear to advise an invasion which they earnestly condemned. To Count Vitzthum's unaffected astonishment, the House of Commons, when they discovered this "half-forgotten piece of thoughtlessness," became highly indignant, and were with difficulty restrained from turning the culprit out of office. The Count sees nothing worthy of condemnation in this transaction: but the expulsion of Austria from Lombardy and the invasion of Sicily by Garibaldi are described by him as crimes of exceptional enormity. They struck a blow at "the sanctity of treaties." What obligation there was on Garibaldi to respect a treaty to which he was not a party, Count Vitzthum does not say. He takes for granted that every right-minded person will accept, as an adequate ethical ideal, the diplomatic view of the universe.

We cannot commend these volumes as throwing any new light upon the great events with which they deal. They systematically ignore the veritable causes of them, and depict as causes the changing eddies on the surface. But no book is to be despised which illustrates with what a small amount of wisdom the world is still content to be governed; and few books with which we are acquainted do this so copiously as the Memoirs of Count Vitzthum. For American readers it has some specially amusing passages, and we take leave of the book with the following extract (vol. ii, p. 169), merely expressing our surprise that it should have been allowed to pass by Mr. Henry Reeve, who is responsible for the editorial supervision:

"With regard to the man who saved the North at this crisis [the outbreak of the civil war in the United States], I heard afterwards some characteristic details dating back to 1862. In the rising commercial town of Chicago were living, when the civil war began, three friends. One of them was foreman in a tan-yard, at a monthly wage of ten to fifteen dollars. The second was head of a boot-and-shoe shop, and thus was brought by his business into daily intercourse with the first. The third and best-to-do of the three, one Washburne, had some influence with the State authorities. When the war broke out and volunteer corps were formed, and the first misfortunes roused the people, Russell Joues, the shoemaker, reminded Washburne that their friend the tanner, Grant, had been to the military college at West Point, and could possibly render good service to the State by his knowledge of strategy. Washburne mentioned Grant to Governor Yates, who took him into his office. But this did not satisfy Grant. He told his friends that he would return to his tannery unless he was given active employment against the enemy.

"Among the young men who offered themselves as volunteers, there were a number of low, fellows and loafers who were ripe for any mischief, and gave much trouble and difficulty to the already overworked police. The Governor proposed to Washburne to appoint Grant as Colonel, on condition that he would at once rid the town of the rabble collected there, form out of this rabble a regiment, and take it away by the next train to join the army. Grant accepted the offer. He was popular with the working classes, and in two days he had a complete regiment under his command, which he purposely led by a circuitous

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route to meet the enemy in ten to fourteen days. Thanks to the iron discipline he enforced, the regiment held its ground in the first brush with the enemy, and soon learned to fight admirably. Before a month was over, Washburne and Russell Jones had the pleasure of seeing their friend's name extolled in all the newspapers. At the same time they received a letter from Grant stating that he had been made a General, but had no money to buy an outfit. The friends consulted together, opened a subscription, and soon raised enough money to enable them to send him the necessary uniform and horses as a present from the grateful patriots of Chicago.

"Grant rose step by step till, as Commander-in-Chief of the Northern Army, he brought the Civil War to a victorious close, and subsequently was elected President of the United States. As such he applied again to Washburne, requesting his friend to undertake the post of Minister to Paris. This request came to Washburne unseasonably. He was unwilling to go to Paris unless his friend Russell Jones was appointed Minister at Brussels. Grant promised accordingly, and thus Washburne became Minister at Paris, while Russell Jones was my [the author's] colleague at Brussels. The latter showed me at that time more than once some autograph private letters from Grant, indicating clearly the intimacy existing between the former tanner and former shoemaker."

Life Notes, or Fifty Years' Outlook. By William Hague, D.D. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1887.

Dr. Hague was born nearly eighty years ago at Pelham, Westchester County, N. Y., and, when a boy of five or six, could see from the piazza of his home threatening English war-vessels in the Sound. When, shortly after the peace of 1815, he was put to the best school in New York city, he attended one on Chatham Square, then a little park. His mother was related to Aaron Burr, and this gave the lad an opportunity to see him familiarly when Vesey Street was still the haunt of the ex-Vice-President. On July 4, 1843, he officiated as chaplain in Faneuil Hall, Boston, on the occasion of Charles Francis Adams's first public oration. Dr. Hague listened to John Quincy Adams's expression of joy in the event, which succeeded by just half a century a like performance by himself in the same city. The clergyman responded: "Having committed and declaimed a part of your own great oration when a school-boy in New York, I could without effort repeat it to you now." About the same period, at the State House in Boston, before a teachers' convention, Emerson was to be the orator; and, says Dr. Hague, "having finished my appointed service as chaplain, and offered the introductory prayer, he at once, stepping into the place I had occupied, commenced his address with a brilliant paragraph containing a parenthetic affirmation of the uselessness of prayer."

Dr. Hague dwells upon his relations to Emerson, which were friendly but not close, and which illustrate his own defective sectarianism, though a pillar of the Baptist denomination. Conversations with Emerson before he withdrew from the ministry, or "from all churchly organism," had shown him to be in the difficult position of having outgrown his ostensible creed. His coming out from the church ruined him in some minds, but not in Dr. Hague's. "As soon as this step of his early career had been taken, my personal interest in his course and style of action as an independent man, an original personality, was greatly quickened; my communication with him became more free, unembarrassed by any degree of sensitiveness as to the proprieties pertaining to official or clerical relations." In connection with this topic, Dr. Hague relates, apparently of Boston: "Thus, as I now remember, passing near the shipyards one day, about eleven o'clock, a workingman hastily stepped forth, crossed the street, and then, having asked the favor of a minute's talk, earnestly put his question as one 'meaning business,' 'Sir, what is Transcendentalism?'"

Son of a sea-captain, Dr. Hague's career was fitly marked by frequent changes of base. He got his academic instruction at Hamilton College, his theological at Princeton and at Newton, Mass. His first pastorate was in Utica, his next in Boston, his third in Providence, and he was twice settled in New Jersey. In Providence he was, of course, denominationally at home, and of this city he gives a most attractive picture:

"In awakening memories of the social life of Providence during my ministry, from 1837 to 1840, I am impressed with its geniality, freedom, and intellectual activity. Never in that city had there been, comparatively, much recognition of ecclesiastical and denominational distinctions in social any more than in civil life. For more than two-thirds of a century the university had been a source of intellectual quickening to the community, modifying the character of the beautiful little capital. At the same time, there had been a diffusion of wealth, refinement, and culture sufficient to impart to general society a tone and spirit quite cosmopolitan. Men and women, representatives of almost every school of thought—evangelical, transcendental, theological, philosophical, literary, or scientific—might be found, even in small clubs or social gatherings, drawn together by a common interest in mental acquisition."

No one would imagine, after reading this, that Providence has been one of the most spiritually barren and least public-spirited cities in the country, among those approaching it in wealth and population, and the seat of one of the most despicable political machines known in our history. We cannot go here into the causes of the discrepancy between Dr. Hague's rosy view and the undeniable failure of Roger Williams's "soul-freedom," the university, abundant wealth, and agreeable social conditions to make of the city and of the whole little State of Rhode Island a model of republican purity and vigor.

Some portions of these 'Life Notes' appeared first in the *Watchman and Reflector*, of which Dr. Hague was at one time an editor. They offer a large amount of personal interest, particularly to the Baptist denomination, and of local and personal interest in the case of the Huguenots of Pelham and New Rochelle. They strive to generalize great drifts of thought and theological and philanthropic activity, and lose not a little definiteness in consequence. Dr. Hague was by nature both genial and optimistic. His reminiscence glided over what it was disagreeable to recall, and not a villain or a culpable character, not a faithless Christian church or reprobate religious newspaper, is seen in "fifty years' outlook." No one, therefore, will come to this little book for history, but for pleasant anecdote, a filmy panorama of scenes in the author's varied experience, a gratifying sense of his amiability, humane instincts, and freedom from bigotry. It is a curious circumstance that, like the late Henry B. Stanton, whom he must have known in Boston, Dr. Hague died while his autobiography was passing through the press.

John Sevier as a Commonwealth-Builder: A Sequel to The Rear-Guard of the Revolution. By James R. Gilmore (Edmund Kirke). D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

Mr. Gilmore proposes to cover the field of early Tennessee history in three books. In his first work he related the services of the settlers upon the Holston and Watauga in acting as the rear-guard of the Revolution, when they held the savages in check beyond the mountains, and annihilated the left wing of Cornwallis in the pivotal battle of King's Mountain. In this narration the name of John Sevier, leader among these "over-mountain men," was conspicuous. In the work before us the author continues the story of Tennessee's progress towards the West, its struggles with the Indians, and its difficulties with the State of North Carolina, resulting in the formation of the short-lived State of Franklin. A concluding volume is promised, to be devoted to Robertson (leader of western Tennessee) and the threatened secession of the West from the Union. The author has chosen a most interesting and important department of United States history. In the battle of King's Mountain, the trans-Alleghany country first stoutly asserted its growing strength, and turned the tide of war in the South in favor of the American arms; in the formation of the State of Franklin there was revealed not only the weakness of the general Government, but the strength of the principle of local self-government in the West; while the movement of the settlers in the Mississippi Valley towards independence was a most critical episode in the history of the country.

Spite of the far-reaching consequences of these events, they are but little known by the average reader. It is the merit of Mr. Gilmore that he has selected the essential facts in these occurrences from sources where they are likely to receive attention only from the specialist, transformed the actors from documentary characters into living men, and presented their story in a spirited narrative. In doing this he has taken a much-needed step in calling attention to the fact that the history of the valley of the Mississippi is a too much neglected branch of the history of this country. The work cannot lay claim to important original research; it is, on the whole, a dramatic presentation of material chosen from Dr. Ramsey's 'Annals of Tennessee.' The part played by the relations of the settlers to the Indians, in respect to encroachment upon the lands of the latter, is well exhibited as one of the leading causes of the revolt of the settlers from the jurisdiction of North Carolina.

In criticism of the book it is to be said that Mr. Gilmore's desire to present a readable and vivid account of these events has led him at times to prefer boldness of characterization and smooth narrative to the accuracy and cautiousness of statement that should mark historical composition. John Sevier, the leader of the settlements against their savage foes, and the Governor of Franklin, as well as first Governor of Tennessee, is doubtless entitled to as enthusiastic a biographer as Mr. Gilmore, and yet one would be glad to know more of the other side of the question. In presenting the correspondence of Sevier, the author has not hesitated to correct grammatical and rhetorical errors. While this may conduce to the smoothness of the narrative, it is certainly unwarrantable, giving as it does a wrong impression of Sevier's capabilities. In other correspondence a sentence that reflects upon the abilities of Sevier is omitted. (Compare pp. 86 and 87 with Ramsey's 'Annals,' pp. 348 and 350.) Such changes, without notice to the reader, lead one to desire to consult his authorities in places where he differs with the accepted view of men and events, but the omission to give specific references renders this impossible. Mr. Gilmore's style is frequently strained and florid, and his manner of composition too often reminds the reader of the newspaper model.

Saratoga Chips and Carlsbad Wafers. By Nathan Sheppard. Funk & Wagnalls.

It is not given to every one to write a book which you can read half through without finding out what it is all about. "Stray Wafers," "All the Cures," "All the Baths," "Mineral-Water Treatment," "Saratoga Treatment," "Flying Chips," "Chips and Wafers," "The Saratoga Winter Cure"—these are some of the rubrics under which the author has gathered an extremely heterogeneous mass of material into a very scat-

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tering little book. He aims to contrast Saratoga with Carlsbad—a laudable object if honestly carried out; but the real argument here is, that of all known places and cures Saratoga is from all points of view the best. Mr. Sheppard's knowledge of balneo-therapeutics is made clear in the following sentence: "I do not believe there is enough difference between the waters of Carlsbad and those of Saratoga to make any difference in the efficacy of the mineral-water treatment." On the contrary, the waters of the two localities are essentially different in constitution, and in consequence adapted to different cures and cases. Those of Saratoga are strongly saline, and adapted to anæmia and nervous affections; those of Carlsbad, while laxative, are more or less of a specific for liver complaints. The fagged-out invalid who would gain strength at Saratoga would be depleted and weakened at Carlsbad. The preappointed visitor to Carlsbad is the *viveur*, the dyspeptic, the man who has eaten too well and drunken too much. For him the depleting treatment is of real value. To confound the two to be ignorant of the first principles of treatment either at these springs or elsewhere.

The author concludes by saying: "The mineral-water treatment may be tried by any one who knows which water is best for him." But this is another essential point; which is the best? Mineral waters, like other medicines, are only valuable when prescribed in accordance with the needs of the particular case. Unappreciated as yet in their full value in our country, they will be more profitably used as they are more intelligently prescribed. The waters of Saratoga, in particular, are taken in excessive quantities by the majority of those who take them at all, and they will be found to have real value when taken as they should be, in small and long-continued doses and under medical prescription.

The Lost Wedding Ring. By Mrs. Winter and Mrs. Boy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THE reviewer has a painful task before him when the writer of a book plainly says that she shall kill herself if what she has to say is not favorably listened to. His honesty is subjected to a greater strain than it ought to be called upon to bear, and the present reviewer pronounces it distinctly immoral on the part of writers to utter such painful threats. In the case of the 'Lost Wedding Ring,' however, the writer herself gets tired of her work before the end, and calls her production "a horrid little book," which it is not. Its tone is thoroughly good, and that is something to be thankful for in a book which treats of marriage. It is a subject that sometimes calls out all that is base and vulgar in the writer of a much more pretentious volume.

This is a book within a book. Mrs. Winter writes a series of essays on the relations of men and women, and Mrs. Boy makes various lively comments on them as they are read aloud. It is a very pleasant picture that is given of the two friends, and the flat in which they live, with broad window-sills on which their things never get scattered, and an adjoining picture-gallery roof, which they have converted into a garden. The first half of the book is a vigorous and sensible assertion of the independence which modern women have won for themselves, and of the change which it has necessarily made in the marriage relation. It is shown that marriage, like any other adventure, needs constant and painstaking effort to make it a successful undertaking, and that to let things go as they will after the honeymoon, instead of cultivating the virtues and graces that have sprung up during courtship, is to invite discord and unhappiness. It is made plain that the wife fills a different rôle to-day, and a more desirable one than that of the submissive creature of yore, who had no thought nor motion of her own; and that the Church, in making the wife's promise to obey a condition of a religious marriage, when it is well known that no wife intends to obey, is encouraging wilful lying.

It is the second part of the book that arouses the vindictive spirit of the critic. This seeks to find the panacea for marital unhappiness in certain mystical interpretations of the story of Adam and Eve, which have just been communicated to the writer by some people whom she met in the Catskills. These theories have strong theosophical leanings, and are of the kind that are to be believed or disbelieved immediately on being heard, without any aid from reason or argument. Mrs. Boy, when she has listened to them, says, in effect: "It is pleasant—it suits me—therefore it is true." This sort of thing emphasizes the necessity of giving to young girls whose heads are full of fertile ideas, out of which they may make a book at some time, thorough training in physics and mathematics and whatsoever other studies may serve to illustrate the good and legitimate and efficient fashion of convincing a person of the truth of what you say.

Some Things Abroad. By Alexander McKenzie. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

IT would not be difficult to give conventional rules for the making of books of the kind of 'Some Things Abroad.' They would run this wise: Take of Baedeker, Murray, or, at the last resort, Fetridge's Handbook, two parts; of Mark Twain, one part; of school geography and English grammar, each a little; and fill up to four parts with any good encyclopædia. Neither taste nor originality is requisite, and the mixture may safely be made in a good easy chair, at no expense beyond that of ink and paper. An ingenious workman could in this way manufacture books which to the ordinary comprehension could not be distinguished from that which Mr. McKenzie has written; and by a careful study of the guide-books, the writer might avoid some blunders which the author of this has fallen into, while its most disagreeable feature might be avoided by taking the Mark Twain a little fresher and more sparkling. The following is a good sample of what we are given in 'Some Things Abroad':

"In one building is a famous well. A venerable woman is in charge of this, and on her authority I give its depth as three hundred and thirty-five feet. She did all in her power, short of a personal descent or actual measurement, to impress us with the truth of her figures. She poured water from a dipper, and bade us listen till it struck the water below. It was a considerable interval. She lighted candles and lowered them into the darkness, and then with a mirror threw the reflection of the lights upon the surface of the water. We were convinced that it was a very deep well. It must take the truth a long time to come up from such depths, and this may explain some tales one hears."

Perhaps as a sample of how the writer's pen runs on, the following, from the account of Milan, in which the Mark Twain component is less apparent, will serve. The italics are ours:

"The monastery of S. Maria delle Grazie was *suppressed into barracks* for cavalry. The refectory was saved from such sacrilege, and remains a bare and deserted room. Upon the wall at one end is one of the chief glories of Milan in the painting of the Last Supper by Leonardo da Vinci. No painting has become more familiar. It is well that it has been in some manner preserved by photographs and engravings. The monks cut a door through the table, and time has carried their inroads upon the picture still further. The paint was not adapted to the wall on which it was placed. But it is nearly four hundred years since the colors *were laid in oils upon the plaster*. The faces are marred and faded, but much of the beauty of the work remains. It was not without difficulty and delay that it was executed. The artist told the impatient prior that he had not been able to find a face which he could copy for Judas. The prisons and the haunts of vice had no model for the traitor. He silenced the prior by suggesting that he should sit for the likeness. So the story runs. The central face does not satisfy. No picture of Christ has contented his friends. Da Vinci waited long before he could *create a conception* of it. His conception is not on the wall. Others have touched what they have not adorned," etc., etc.

In Venice Mr. McKenzie sees "the *four* lions from the Piræus, *one of which* is fabled to come *from Marathon*." He does not even consult his guide-book to profit, for he says of Trieste that it "is mentioned as a *Roman* town fifty years before the Christian era, when it was known as Tergeste." He makes some curious additions to the wonders of Athens: "Pausanias saw also the sacred olive tree, the crooked 'citizen' of the height. We also saw the olive tree, a mere shrub, without impressiveness, save that which its romantic history lends it." One can have little patience with this mixture of stale badinage, careless observation, and commonplace diary writing.

Letzte Gänge. Von Johannes Scherr. Zweite Auflage. Stuttgart: W. Spemann; New York: Westermann. 1887.

AT the time of his death in November, 1886, the indefatigable Scherr, author of mediocre books enough to make a small library, was engaged upon a new work which was to bear the title, 'Jesuiten und Freimaurer: Drei Bücher Kulturgeschichte.' He had finished only a part of the first essay when the illness which finally proved fatal interrupted his labors. The volume before us seems to have been made, like the razors in the well-known ballad, to sell: it contains of Scherr, first, the torso of the essay upon the Jesuits; secondly, some sixty pages of matter headed "Im Hörsaal," and consisting apparently of miscellaneous extracts from lectures to students. The remainder of the book is by other hands, embracing a short sketch of Scherr's life and two memorial addresses which were delivered at his funeral. As to Scherr's part of the volume, it contains nothing that he had not said many times before. We find the same style, the same philosophy, the same religious and political prejudices; and yet the most caustic and exacting critic could not on his conscience pronounce the book dull.

The fact is, that in spite of all the harsh things that have been said, and said rightly, about his literary work, Scherr was in many ways a remarkable man. His great rhetorical skill has always been freely conceded, even by those who disliked him. His industry and fertility speak for themselves in the list of his works, and his honesty of conviction no one has ever questioned. He belonged, too, to a group of highly interesting persons, who are rapidly passing away—the talented German exiles of 1848. We are, therefore, really grateful to Prof. Mähly for his biographical sketch of Scherr, which contains more information about the man than we have heretofore chanced to see in print. Scherr was born in 1817 of Catholic parents in Suabia. It was a part of the irony of his fate that in his childhood he was for a while boy ministrant to a Catholic priest. He was an heir of poverty, and used to relate complacently to young men who seemed to him possessed of Sybaritic propensities, how he once passed at school a whole winter during which his daily ration was, with no variation whatever, a portion of poor sauerkraut and a piece of bread. His biographer gives but few details with regard to the incident which led to his expatriation. He was living at Stuttgart in the winter of 1848–49, and, having an ardent temperament, a fondness for leadership, and, withal,

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much of the talent of the orator, he naturally took a rather prominent part in the political agitation of the period. He delivered numerous fervid speeches in behalf, as Mähly says, of German "unity and greatness" (surely, no great sin from a modern point of view). When the reaction set in, a committee was raised by the Stuttgart Liberals which was to have charge of the people's clubs (*Volksvereine*). Of this committee Scherr was a member, and, as such, he organized in June, 1849, a mass meeting at which he himself acted as orator of the day. His utterances on this occasion were so radical, so outspokenly republican, that the Government determined to prosecute him. He, however, through a chance acquaintance of his wife's, got wind of what was coming; so that, as the police were entering his front yard, the would-be tribune of the people escaped by the back door through an adjacent burying-ground to the railway station, from which he took the train for Switzerland. His wife soon followed him, and the pair passed the remainder of their days in exile—an exile which soon became very comfortable. In 1860 Scherr was appointed Professor of History at the Zürich Polytechnicum, a position which he occupied until his death.

Scherr's talent was that of expressing with vigor and dash, and upon occasion with brutal directness, the kind of ideas which are dear to a liberally inclined but half-cultivated and superficial *bourgeoisie*. To the choicer spirits of his nation, even among the liberals, Scherr's books have always been unpalatable. His works testify to a prodigious range of reading, and he certainly did not, as has sometimes been charged, altogether slight the "dead work" of investigation; he simply formed his opinions too easily, and made books too rapidly, to permit his spending very much time in pure research. His criticism is usually crude and commonplace, and quite devoid of suggestiveness, for the reason that his range of thought and feeling was only a little above that of the rationalistic, self-confident *bourgeoisie* which constitutes his public. To a person of some philosophy he really has but little to say, but even to such a person his manner of expressing himself prevents him from being altogether uninteresting. For it is not to be denied that Scherr handled the German language with great dexterity. Without imitating his occasional coarseness, or sharing his *penchant* for matter of doubtful propriety, many a better critic and better historian than he might well take lessons of him in the art of clear and forcible statement.

A History of the University of Oxford. By the Hon. G. C. Brodrick, D.C.L., Warden of Merton College. [Epochs of Church History.] Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 12mo, pp. 235.

Mr. Maxwell Lyte's history of Oxford University, recently noticed by us (*Nation*, No. 1157), is, within its range, an exhaustive treatise; but its plan excludes several matters upon which the general reader will certainly desire information. It is incomplete in respect to time, and designedly omits several important phases of university life and work. Mr. Brodrick had already given to the world a valuable work upon the early history of the University, in his 'Memorials of Merton College'; in the present book we have the fruits of his early labors, and along with them an admirable account of the modern history of the University. It is complete in its general plan, and as full in detail as will be desired by most readers. Being composed upon the basis of very thorough knowledge, and written in an interesting narrative style, it is a book which will be widely welcomed. We note, nevertheless, the omission of two topics which we might expect to find fully treated—the character of university instruction and the internal organization of the universities during the Middle Ages. These, if not wholly passed over, are very inadequately dealt with.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F. Dialect Ballads. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Barr, Amelia E. A Border Shepherdess. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Baskervill, Prof. W. M. Outline of Anglo-Saxon Grammar. A. S. Barnes & Co. 75 cents.
Bellamy, E. Miss Ludington's Sister. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Butterworth, H. Songs of History. Boston: New England Publishing Co. $1.
Butterworth—Root. The Pillar of Fire: A Cantata for the Sunday School and Choir. Cincinnati: The John Church Co. 30 cents.
Cotillion Almanac for 1888. Geo. Routledge & Sons. 25 cents.
Craik, Mrs. D. M. An Unknown Country. Harper & Brothers.
D'Aulnoy's Fairy Tales. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Finley, Martha. Elsie's Friends at Woodburn. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25
Gomme, G. L. The Gentleman's Magazine Library. Romano-British Remains. Part II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Hale, Rev. E. E. Lights of Two Centuries. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.75.
Holder, C. F. Living Lights: a Popular Account of Phosphorescent Animals and Vegetables. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Howells, W. D. Modern Italian Poets. Essays and Versions. With Portraits. Harper & Brothers.
Hugo, V. Les Misérables. Vol. 2. Cosette. Vol. 3. Marius. Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. Boston: T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Johnson, Laura Winthrop. The Longfellow Prose Birthday Book. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers on the Congo: Adventures of Two Youths in a Journey with Henry M. Stanley. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Love, S. G. Industrial Education: a Guide to Manual Training. E. L. Kellogg & Co. $1.75.
Meiklejohn, Prof. J. M. D. The English Language: its Grammar, History, and Literature. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.40.
Modern Juvenile Classics, by the Best Authors. Cincinnati: The John Church Co. $1.
Modern Soprano Songs, by the Best Authors. Cincinnati: The John Church Co. $1.
Modern Vocal Duets, by the Best Authors. Cincinnati: The John Church Co. $1.25.
Morris, Rev. E. D. Is there Salvation after Death? A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Panin, I. Thoughts. Second Series. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Peard, Frances Mary. Madame's Granddaughter. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Penn—Lincoln. Harvest Bells, No. 3. A Rare Collection of New and Beautiful Songs for Sunday Schools, &c. Cincinnati: The John Church Co.
Pyle, H. The Rose of Paradise: Adventures of Capt. John Mackra, in Connection with the Famous Pirate, Edward England, in 1720. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Ridgway, R. A Manual of North American Birds. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $7.50.
Roe, Rev. E. P. The Earth Trembled. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Skeat, Rev. W. W. The Gospel according to St. Matthew, in Anglo-Saxon, Northumbrian, and Old Mercian Versions, Synoptically Arranged. New ed. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Smith, F. H. Well-Worn Roads of Spain, Holland, and Italy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Smyth, Rev. N. Christian Facts and Forces. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. According to Promise. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Stables, G. On Special Service: a Tale of Life at Sea. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.50.
Stapfer, Rev. E. Palestine in the Time of Christ. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $3.
Swift, J. Gulliver's Travels. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Thackeray, W. M. Lovel the Widower, etc. The Memoirs of Barry Lyndon, Esq., etc. 2 vols. Handy Ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Willson, T. E. £10,000. Frank F. Lovell & Co.

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